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ABSTRACT

This report concerns the dilemma faced by students enrolled in Quebec's Colleges de l'Enseignement General and Professional and by students everywhere as more and more emphasis is placed on the content of learning rather than on learning how to learn. The construct of educational-life skills is introduced and a taxonomy of feedback materials is presented that may stimulate the student's adaptive responses to complex social situations in the academic milieu. Educational-life skills are defined as concerning the development in students of the awareness, understanding, and use, with the teacher's help, of the interpersonal relations, communications, problem-solving, and critical thinking skills which relate to learning to learn. Chapter 1 defines educational-life skills, their domain and range, and the limits for the context and process of feedback. Chapter 2 explains feedback; the relationships among communication, feedback, and educational-life skills; and the cognitive content and affective process associated with feedback. Chapter 3 identifies student-teacher feedback variables and argues that knowledge about their use helps to explain student behaviors that border on learned helplessness. It is suggested that by providing students with educational-life skills feedback, teachers can increase student persistence and academic achievement. Chapter 4 presents the Taxonomy of Educational-Life Skills and an index for the taxonomy. (NB)

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter 1 What are Educational-Life Skills?
Introduction....2
The Educational-Life Skills' Construct....4
Defining the Domain and the Range of Educational-Life Skills..5
Defining the Limits for the Content and Process of Feedback...7

Chapter 2 What is Feedback?
Introduction....9
Communication, Feedback and Educational-Life Skills....9
Feedback Has Survival Value in Education....12
Feedback: Cognitive Content and Affective Process....13
Denotative and Connotative Components of Feedback....14
The Analysis of Content and Process Variables of Feedback....16
The Source/Object of Feedback....16
The Direction, Extensity and Intensity of Feedback....18
The Timing and Propensity of Feedback....19
The Context and Formative Purpose of Feedback....21
Real-Life Applications....22

Chapter 3 Educational-Life Skill Feedback, Persistence and Achievement.
Introduction....24
Student-Teacher Feedback Variables....24
The Effects of Feedback....24
Immediate Consequences of Feedback....27
Motives for Feedback....27
Selecting 'Feedbacks Channel'....28
Fostering Positive Attitudes for Feedback
Learned Helplessness and Feedback....29
Feedback: Inclusion, Power and Affect....31
The Role of the Teacher in Providing Students Feedback About Educational Life-Skills....32
How Does Increased Knowledge About Educational-Life Skills Help Student Persistence and Achievement?....33

Chapter 4 The Taxonomy of Educational-Life Skills
Introduction....37
Inclusion, Control and Affection....38
The Taxonomy of Educational-Life Skills....41
Interpersonal Relation and Communication Skills....41
Making the Contact....41
Listening Skills....45
Speaking Skills....48
Interacting With Others....51
Problem-Solving Skills....60
Critical Thinking Skills....61
Index for the Taxonomy....63

Bibliography and References....67

Chapter 1

What are Educational-Life Skills?

Introduction

The growing dissatisfaction with education is nowhere more evident than in the daily lives of cegep students. They want more than to have their brains filled with facts and more facts. On the other hand if teachers appeal to students to understand, rather than to passively memorize, students panic. Students usually are unable to generalize the theory just presented to solve another problem unless it is similar to a sample problem which has been presented. If the grand aim of education is to be able to ultimately provide individuals with tools to predict and to better control their own behavior then we had better take some time to organize and synthesize the effect of what is being done for students is doing to students.

Of course the scientific, and especially the academic community, argue that education is an applied area on which the professions rely to transmit a body of knowledge conducive to certain careers. As a result there is a dangerous and top-heavy situation prevailing in Cegep education. Teachers have become specialists with specialities. More teachers are willing to teach what they know and very few are able to teach how they know - and more importantly how they have come to know what they know.

The essential point of this report is that too much emphasis has been placed on the content of learning. Students learn many 'things' but never learn to learn. They need to learn to intervene, to become active rather than passive, and to raise questions so as to give, as well as to receive, feedback. When this is accomplished educational technology will serve the broader interests of the profession, for which the student is preparing, by taking into account that knowing when, where and how to apply knowledge is just as important as possessing that knowlege.

We need to take a pregnant pause to study what is going on in the megatrends of pouring out tens of thousands of graduates. We seem to forget that the ultimate aim of educational science is not prediction but control. The ultimate value of education is

to help students better predict and eventually control, for themselves, the events in their lives and chosen profession. Education has become very big business. This may explain, but not excuse, why we have lost sight of the fact that education is a means to an end. "Knowledge", in and of itself, may be valuable to an individual but to a society it is the product of that knowledge that matters.

Every professional is expected to be able to generalize from what he has learned by reflecting on how he knows. This allows us as a society to grow and develop. The role of education is to serve as a technology capable of furnishing both the content and methodology of the professions to achieve personal, career and societal goals. Otherwise students will only be the poor carbon copies of their teachers and the society will regress.

Teachers, collectively, represent a sample of the population in terms of the social order. By ingoring that social order in their relations with students, teachers have wrongly assumed that their theories and course content are independent of their relationship to that social order. The pictures of the social order, as represented by teachers and imposed on students, is woefully inexact of the real social order. Students are interactive within a society and for that society to be effective they must be interactive within aspects of their daily lives - Cegep. This presupposes the ability to question oneself about where one has been and where one is going. This is clearly a process variable. Our content oriented teaching accentuates the present. We rarely encourage students to think about how they have learned or will learn.

The local newspaper, Le Soleil, in recent articles (Boulet, March 21,1987) has reflected on this concern. He questions the validity of university programs to teach music when there are no, or very few, practical extensions once this knowledge is acquired. According to the article, it is the students who must 'pay the bill' since society cannot absorb so many people, with this training, into its ranks. In the past these students have pushed on to eventually wind up teaching. This pyramidal arrangement supposes that there always will be a larger and growing demand for the talent. In such circumstances teaching and education have become goals onto themselves. There will be room for the 'best and brightest', however we are now realizing that many thousands of persons who entertained such an illusory career goal have been sacrificed. Had these students learned how to learn, could they not have been better prepared to integrate society? In effect, we are stating, as an assumption, that there is a mutual responsibility, between teachers and students, for the causality and productivity in learning. If the teacher doesn't explain then the student should be able to ask. The student doesn't ask not because he lacks the will but probably because he lacks the skill to do so.

Let's take a familiar and practical example to demonstrate our argument. A student who wishes to follow a program of cegep studies is confronted with which Cegep to choose. This variety is both an asset and a liability. No two teachers, and consequently their courses, are quite the same. This provides just about any student with the hope of finding a program of studies that will be responsive to his career needs, vocational interests and personal orientation. It does suggest that students will have to interact with people who communicate and relate differently highly similar course and program content.

The academic integrity of the courses and the validity of the program must, however, remain coherent and stable. To achieve this the courses and programs must make continuous adjustments in the processes of feedback between the student's needs and interests, and the requirements of the course and program. The process of giving and receiving feedback, the distinguishing activity of pedagogy, allows the teacher to know where he has been and where he is heading to adjust his behavior to meet course objectives. The feedback operates to help the teacher select the goals, just as it operates to help our student to select the Cegep. However, and this is the fundamental difference between teachers and students, teachers learn to actively monitor feedback while students appear to be stuck in a constant state of non-opportunism and procrastination. Students show all the signs of not being aware of the formative aspects of feedback. Once they select and matriculate in Cegep, that 'problem' is solved and forgotten. The next problem is to choose courses and teachers, and when that's done and solved they move on to another 'problem'. Critical thinking skills can develop as a function of having progressed through a series of problems only if one monitors and uses feedback. Otherwise life is but a series of disjointed and seemingly unrelated events.

"Will that be on the exam sir?", "Do we have to learn this?", "Is this important?" "Did we do anything important?" are the typical questions which reveal that students know very little about feedback. Their questions reflect a sense of urgency for the immediate; a motive to pursue adolescent gratifications; and most, of all, a lack of perception of their place in the educational process. Educational-life skills coaching about feedback may help students become more aware of the difference that they can make in learning.

The Educational-Life Skills' Construct

A construct is whatever ideas one relies upon to communicate the sense one makes of one's experience. It is neither "right" nor "wrong". The construct attempts to impose some organization and sense upon observation by drawing upon one's knowledge and

inferences. By so doing we rely on the rules of categorization and attribution. Our categorizations represent our cognitive, affective and perceptual biases. The attributions themselves reveal the contents of our thoughts, feelings, and motives. We come to think that the associations we have made between attributions and categorizations are adequate 'defining' attributes. We come to think that the concept and what we think of the concept are one and the same. That is, we come to the construct that objective reality and subjective experience are synonymous. For example, the student who acts towards the teacher on the basis of the affective categorization, "The teacher looks mean," is letting the subjective evaluation taint the objective reality. This process points to the fact that feedback operates to both shape and reflect the categorizations and attributions we make.

The concepts we have for "education" both shape and reflect the concepts of "achievement," "student," "teacher," and more importanly the concept for "learning". The attributes we assign to learning influence our opinions, beliefs, values and expectations which in turn influence how we categorize our experience. The only way to break such circular reasoning is to expose ourselves to new information and experiences. But unless we ask questions to check on our information processing we don't know if the subjective experience of learning fits in with the ojective reality. If we rely on spontaneous feedback from others we may find our learning directed along avenues that we were not prepared to pursue. The only reasonable alternative is to ask questions. We must inquire about the very process we are using to assimilate information. This is a metacognitive activity since we are forming constructs about the constructs [metaconstructs]. Learning to learn educational-life skills means to become aware of how we are learning. The vehicle for learning to learn is feedback about content and process to students, from teachers, during interpersonal exchanges.

Defining the Domain and the Range of Educational-Life Skills

What can a student place at his disposition, in any given situation, to facilitate the process of "learning"? Necessarily this involves learning to learn. There are fundamental, intermediate and complex life skills which may be learned. It is possible to start with some behaviors that are already at the disposition of the students. Eye contact and body posture, for example, can easily and quickly be drawn upon to have the student experience for himself his impact on the process of learning.

We believe that it is possible to identify and report on fundamental, intermediate and complex life skills which teachers and students can use to understand, predict, and ultimately

control the process they use to teach and to learn. Control relates to a sense of responsiblity as well as a sense of mastery over the social and physical environment. This internal locus of control has serious implications for learning intrinsic motives (Deci, 1975). An external source of reinforcement when added to an existing intrinsic motive, and then removed, greatly decreases the strength of the initial intrinsic motive. This clearly suggests that learning of some type is operative. We are suggesting that the pattern, frequency, and quantitative and qualitative aspects of the reinforcement helps create an intrinsic motive called reinforcement history. Any teacher who has ever taken the time to observe an intrinsically motivated student notices that he actively seeks rather than passively 'finds' the most meaningful reinforcements for learning.

The integration of problem-solving and interpersonal skills into a cognitive behavior is possible to the extent that the student finds it possible to integrate himself within the the educational milieu, to take others into consideration, and to move from a concrete level to a more formal level of reasoning. In this process "self", the "self-others" image, as well as critical thinking skills are developed and exchanged between student and teacher. That is, the skills of human relations, problem-solving, and critical thinking are identified and developed to help students proactively manage rather than reactively manage their lives. The essential difference is one of planning to act on, instead of reacting to, the academic environment and its demands. Simply, this means to actively participate in creating one's reinforcement history.

Human relations skills are required to communicate, to interact and to develop awareness of self and others so as to contribute to the development of a mutual responsibility for learning this reinforcement history. Problem-solving skills refer to those behaviors necessary to identify, solve and evaluate academic work and performance. The ability to process information by collecting information, establishing criteria, going from the particular to the general and vice versa, to move from the concrete through the functional to attain the abstract levels of reasoning, and to evaluate the proposed plan and results are the essential elements of critical thinking skills. A reinforcement history that is determined by oneself [proactive management of one's life] is intrinsically motivating while a reinforcement history that is determined by others [reactive management of one's life] is immediately stronger and 'better', but it undermines the person's awareness of the past and future importance of his behaviors. Additionally, if the external sources for one's reinforcement history are removed, or shift to a partial schedule of reinforcement, the strength to influence present behavior is considerably weakened.

When the student leaves Cegep should he not be more apt to communicate? - to progressively handle and adapt to the demands made by the social and physical environment? -and, in brief, to

more systematically and rationally manage his approach to life and work? The acquisition and development of these skills have implications for education and for life. Each individual's reinforcement history is unique and probably explains why one reacts fortuously or not to opportunities for personal growth.

Defining the Limits for the Content and Process of Feedback

Presently there is no guide, specifically aimed at the problems of studying in Cegep which identifies, classifies and evaluates what is known about student educational practices in relation to the variables of knowing how, when and where to give and solicit feedback from professors. While this may appear secondary to cognitive development, it may be argued that feedback is a fundamental process in student-teacher exchanges and has serious implications for the pedagogical act and the creation of the student's learning reinforcement history.

A taxonomy of educational-life skills for learning how to learn may help students deal better with the realities of working for a Cegep education. In this manner some of the many problems that arise can be avoided or at least dealt with more constructively. To attain this objective we need to identify, and to arrange in hierchical form, the fundamental to complex skills related to giving and receiving feedback about communication, problem-solving and critical thinking. The cognitive aspects of feedback define the efficiency of learning in Cegep because the level of the student's skills in giving and receiving feedback determine how well he can perform in Cegep. The affective aspect of feeback, or how the student feels about having to give and receive feedback, influences his affective categorizations about feedback as reinforcement which, in turn, operate on the intrinsic motive for learning. And, from there, as we argue in our discussion on feedback, the cognitive aspects are influenced. The likely place to interrupt this circular behavior is to provide the students with the opportunity to experience positive reinforcement when they make concrete and realistic efforts to change their learning behaviors.

The pedagogical process has two major aspects: A task orientation and a person orientation. To be oriented towards a task is to focus on the content and the end product, or consequence of learning. We are assuming that part of the task orientation of pedagody is to help prepare students to assume life roles and to attain career goals. The obtention of a diploma, in itself, is only the symbolic representation of the 'rite of passage' into an adult world. Focusing on the persons who process the content to attain an end is the person orientation of pedagogy. This means that teachers and students need to know when, where, and how to intervene to give and

receive feedback.

How well feedback can be processed and assimilated relates to three person orientations: The professor, student, and their relationship or "interexperience". A teacher may know but not be able to communicate effectively. A student may want to learn but not know where to go, how and when to ask, or what to do when the information is made available to him. That the student knows how to use the information once he gets it, where and when to find out what he needs to know, and especially to know what to do to help himself learn this process, seem like essential products of pedagogy -no matter what model of teaching is adopted (Joyce and Weil, 1980). Otherwise, the student is limited to what the teacher, the course and the textbooks make available to him.

The development of the taxonomy must identify, classify, and evaluate the content and process of feedback, as it relates to efficiency of learning. What are the tasks, perceptions and actions that students need to learn in Cegep to facilitate feedback from their teachers? Knowing how, when and where to ask a question would seem as important as knowing that one has a question without the ability to ask it.

Chapter 2

What is Feedback?

Introduction

This reports makes no pretense to develop and defend on theoretical grounds the necessity to provide feedback as an important aspect for learning adaptive behavior. Nor do we propose to clutter this taxonomy with scientific reports or empirical evidence to support each point. We do, however, rely on expert authority to support some of the more important postulates which would appear, at first, to run counter to prevailing 'common', but erroneous, perceptions about the content and process of feedback

Our main concern with this report is to provide a taxonomy of feedback materials that may serve to stimulate the student's adaptive responses to complex social situations in the academic milieu. Specifically, we identify and organize the list of educational-life skill postulates in human relations, problem-solving and critical thinking skills. Too many resources finally wind up telling us: "Go talk to the teacher." That doesn't tell us when, where, how and the general idea of what to talk about. All we know is that we should "communicate." This points to the fact that human relations, or interpersonal relations and communications, belong to a larger generic class of educational-life skills in which students, apparently, are deficient.

Communication, Feedback and Educational-Life Skills

Communication has become a 'buzz' or 'weasel' word. We are, I suspect, coming to an age where it is more important to learn to say what you don't mean. Human relation articles in popular magazines and television 'situation comedies' abound with such trite advice on how to solve one's problems. The person always shows, conveniently, great powers of insight for giving or receiving feedback. For example, in one popular textbook a football coach manages to find the right words, at the right

time, and place to help the budding athlete repent upon the error of using pot. The student athlete then goes on to a brilliant career. The reality is that such accounts appear in the media because they are exceptions. The general case is systematically avoided like the plague. If one were to dare to offer practical advice it is feared that it may be possibly interpreted as a 'behavioral recipe', or as too specific to be generalizable, or then, again, as just too mundane. It's as though reality were a pale imitation of the media accounts of human behavior. We are coming to believe in the image as being more real than life itself. Feedback, if we rely on the general information model, exists for us to make external changes to our behavior, or at least to appear to want to make such changes. That is, appearing competent, according to the media, is more important than being competent.

The following example, from a recent popular movie, suggests the artificiality between communication and feedback when educational-life skills are ignored. The male student is up on charges of some sort before the high school's disciplinary committee. Suddenly a female friend, who appears to want to become a girl-friend, offers him a quote from the Bible as a means of impressing the members of the disciplinary committee. Our male student reads the passage and exclaims something to the effect: "Wow! This is great. It's just what I need to get them off my back." He shows little concern for any real change. The solution is to communicate feeback that creates and maintains an 'impression'. Our students behave this way when they tell each other: "Well, if you have professor so-and-so, make sure to include stuff about sex in your essay. You'll always get at least a passing grade!" 'Getting by' is the antithesis of educational-life skill development.

First impressions are an important and <u>initial</u> reaction to another. However, the staying power of first impressions is soon challenged when one is confronted with an everyday reality: "Would you like to work with this person?" This is the reality we wish to address in this report. It is the fundamental assumption of this report that there is a relationship between the student's educational-life skills, specifically how he uses feedback, and his initial and continued academic persistence and achievement. We wish to identify the postulates for being, rather than appearing, competent in education.

Learning means development and change which comes from the real, and often lonely, task of admitting to oneself the stark naked truth that learning is personal growth. We want information about ourselves. We are starving for information about ourselves. However, having to live with ourselves means that we have to be careful to dose this feedback because it arouses guilt, shame, doubt and anxiety. We can handle, by ourselves, only small doses of these negative emotional states. Over a brief period of time, say the length of a stay in Cegep, students are made to face these states very often. If, as Zajonc

(1980) reminds us, the mental functions are in the service of the emotions, then student cognitive development could be adversely affected. Part of the student's negative responses to the process of emotionally charged feedback could be changed through a move towards 'humanizing education' - a phrase that suggests that teachers can and should do something to help.

The older approach, under which many of us have been trained, has been to focus on the teacher to transmit a body of knowledge and to get students to see things our way. A goodexample of this fallacy is, from the teacher's point of view: "If you will do as I say, we will be so happy!" which is affectively processed by the student as: "If I will do what he says, he will be happy!" We ignore that communication can, with all of the best of intentions, create interpersonal barriers. For a poignant discussion on the classic work on this topic see Roethlisberger (1952). We are implying that teaching should involve listening to students as well as lecturing to them. And, this is possibly a basic difference, we mean to imply to talk with rather than to talk to students. We recognize this as one of the cornerstones of the experiential learning movement in education. This has grown into such a powerful development that the initial sub-organization, Cooperative Assessment of Experiential Learning (CAEL), broke off, in 1983, from the Educational Testing Service to found its own center. A pair of very influential reports on the role of interpersonal relations as a means of developing communications between teachers and students have already been prepared (Breen et al., 1977a, 1977b). We are not implying that teacher interpersonal relations and communications are inadequate or faulty, we simply wish to reassure teachers that course standards and intellectual integrity won't be affected adversely if student's are given the opportunity to be *heard*.

This report hopes to meet the need for student skill development to perceive, listen, communicate and respond with greater problem solving skills. Conjointly we assist teachers in this task by providing a taxonomy of the educational-life skills postulates. 'Miracles' in change, as with our athlete in the last example, won't just happen. Very few teachers, and even fewer students, possess the kinds of educational-life skills to give and receive feedback so effectively. The aim of this chapter is to make tachers aware that they can facilitate, through feedback, student self-awareness and self-understanding of the postulates of educational-life skills as effective means for fostering positive attitudes towards change. The teacher is seen primarily as a facilitator who, as a genuine and authentic person, provides the student with direction to cope more effectively with academic persistence and achievement. The teacher, beyond being a store and distributor of ideas, acts as a guide to help the student to recognize, develop, and use educational-life skills, which, it has been researched (Lipman-Blumen et al., 1980) and argued (Talbot,1987), is at the very heart of the needs of students prone to abandon or fail out of Cegep.

Feedback Has Survival Value in Education

We all have an idea of what we are as well as what we like to think others think about us. Unless we are amongst a select, fortunate few we cannot live in this little world dominated only by our perceptions. What others actually think of us rarely coincides with what we would like to think they think about us. Why should it coincide? What is the relationship of the degree of 'coincidence' with interpersonal relations and communications? The answer is 'adjustment'. We tend to draw and to form stable relationships with those who are most similar to us. If, by sharing feedback, we discover the similarities between ourselves and others, the likelihood of continued interpersonal relations and communications is increased. If, on the other hand, interpersonal feedback points to differences between persons then, to the degree that these are not resolvable, or too cherished by either person, then the relationship is decreased.

Teacher feedback, often negative, to students can thus actually create an escape or avoidance behavior situation between the student and the teacher. The student's cognitive responses are in the service of his emotions which in turn are a function of his affective categorizations. When teachers attempt to provide the student with constructive feedback the student is not prepared, at least affectively, to receive this help. As with much of this kind of 'friendly advice' the student, just like any of us, is 'on guard' for unsolicited feedback. The interpersonal barriers to communication are one's expectations. (Talbot, 1987) And, as we propose to show in a later development, these expectations have three pivot points: Inclusion, control and affection. When these three work in uniscence, in the student-teacher interpersonal context, feedback can operate to produce changes desired by both persons.

The stark naked truth is painful and we spend much cognitive effort and invest much affect to build defenses to protect ourselves from the threat of knowing about too much such differences. We may think to be asking for feedback but our emotions betray our request. "Gee, I don't seem to be able to get my act together. What's wrong with me?" is an all too familiar comment. Interested "others" know better than to respond to such comments. They simply assume that one is "down in the dumps" and either ignore the request or react with sympathetic listening by prompting the person "to talk about it" or "get it off your chest." Still, at other times, we need to share our feelings but we can't find the words to express these emotions. What words are suitable to express sharing another's grief? sadness? good fortune? etc. After the usual social

amenities we oftentime resort to sending nonverbal messages and remain silent.

We are also well aware that we must adapt to our social environment. The demands of modern day living hardly permit someone to fend for themselves, as in the rugged individualism that marked the early expansion in North America. There are few individuals with the skills, training, spirit and especially access to raw materials, that would allow survival with a minimum of social contact. Thus, we are bound to interact, to communicate and to relate. That is, we are forced to compare what we think of ourselves and what we think others think about us, with what others actually think about us. While it may be true that we can choose our social environment, the socioeconomic realities of supply and demand often impose, to one degree or another, that we at least interact at work with people whom we may not ordinarily communicate or relate with elsewhere. So, whether we elect, or are "forced" by our work, into interpersonal situations it becomes essential to gain and implement knowledge about feedback. Feedback has its foundations in the exchanges that promote interpersonal relations and communications. Through the content and process of feedback one forms ideas which become the basis for change. More specifically feedback is an awareness of the means for noting and sharing our perceptions of change in self and others.

Feedback in interpersonal relations and communications is made up of content and process variables. *Content variables* are cognitive activities which refer to what and where to communicate. How and when to relate are affective activities or *process variables*. Cognitive content and the affective process are discussed next.

Feedback: Cognitive Content and Affective Process

The product of source [self vs others] by object [self vs others] by direction, extensity, intensity, and the other four pairs of process variables produces a 2 to the ninth power matrix of possibilities! It is suggestive of the complexity of the interaction amongst feedback variables that one takes into account. However, things are not as complicated as they may seem. An analogy is of learning to dance with the aide of painted footsteps on the floor. Concentrating on the music, which foot, what step sequence and on the partner seems most difficult. Yet we do learn to dance and we don't stop to think of "a dance" in terms of all its component parts or "steps". We just do it.

The cognitive and affective characteristics do differ but they are actually parallel to each other. That is, human behavior is

a joint function of cognitive and affective characteristics. Just as in our dance analogy, dancing is more than just executing some movements. Our "attitude" or feelings are an integral part of dancing. Just think back on the mechanical movements of your first dance. One probably didn't have time to enjoy the activity because one was too concerned thinking how to properly execute the steps. In the matrix just created both cognitive content, "dance steps", and affective processing, "time to enjoy", operate simultaneously to influence interpersonal communications and relations. The slight, almost imperceptible differences in the cognitive content and affective process reveal how we can "get the feel" if the person "really wants" to dance as well as "to know" when the person is "in the mood" for dancing.

The following, more pertinent, example serves to more clearly reveal the almost imperceptible relationship between cognition and affect and suggests the innate ability we have to use it. Cognitive activity, controlled by deductive and inductive reasoning, finds expression as differences in speech, especially vocabulary. For example, "Can I help?", or "May I help?" do of course have noticeable semantic differences. The former asks about actual physical ability to help, the latter asks permission to help. However, in the everyday conversations that characterize our interpersonal relations, such cognitive differences are academic. It is the affective process paralleling the cognitive content which permits one to suppose that the communication is the same - in these examples the intent to help. Given that the affective process and the cognitive content parallel each other the matrix reduces to 32 items [2 to the fifth power]. That is, the affective variables are subsumed along with cognitive ones.

A final distinction is made necessary as a result of treating the affective and cognitive variables at the same time. The relative difficulty, or ease, of perceiving and interpreting affective messages in cognitive communications, although innate, requires that we examine the denotative and connotative aspects to understand the development and functioning of individual differences which are learned.

Denotative and Connotative Components of Feedback

The cognitive content operates with denotative or connotative meanings to influence how we interpret the parallel affective process. It is acceptable to take time to think things over, and even to think about how we feel about those same "things." Yet how does one feel about one's thoughts?, about one's feelings? These are certainly not the habitual substances for conversation. They are nonetheless real and functioning.

The connotative aspects refer to the meanings we make of concepts based on our experiences, values and attitudes. The denotative meanings refer to the common pool of events, experiences and physical objects to which we have recourse when we wish to "anchor" a concept. The denotative or connotative meanings refer, respectively, to the overt or covert aspects of behavior. That is, what you think you say and what I take it to mean are connotative meanings. What we can agree to, by pointing to common experiences, values, behaviors etc. is the denotative meaning. For example, my use of the word "horse" has meaning only to those who have ever "experienced" this animal. The concept should be of no difficulty to us. However, what you think of, in response to my word "horse" may not be anything like the one another thinks. The differences between what you think [a slow, big, plowhorse] and what another thinks [a sleek, slender racehorse] are the connotative meanings. With respect to feedback, the overt behaviors are measured with "what and where" kinds of questions while the covert are measured with "why?" And this is precisely a part of the problem.

We cannot answer "why" questions. They appeal to what we think about our thoughts and feelings. Additionally we are forced to find words that express this parallel process. Its no wonder that one becomes "socially defensive" under conditions of being asked the 'why' of our behavior. There is no provision for affective processing. It's as though we are to be held accountable for what we think and feel. Out attitudes toward our behavior influences the perception we have of ourselves in that behavior.

Some may suggest that one has to be more explicit and perhaps to define the terms one uses, or simply refer to behaviors that these represent. This would be useful, as in legal and diplomatic exchanges. However, the high precision in content usually is at the expense of the affective process. Can you imagine how you would react to someone who was constantly ruminating as to what is the best part of speech to use to express oneself? To recognize that this is a compulsive personality disorder is easy work.

Henry Kissinger, at the Viet Nam Peace talks in Paris, could not, under the circumstances, do differently then to talk about the realities of war and the prospects of peace in the same sentence without allowing for his personal affect to intervene. A surgeon who files his or her surgical plan and schedule can't be governed by "I feel better if I do it this way." We are suggesting, in essence that when feedback is about a task, "why" questions are appropriate. When the feedback is about persons they are never appropriate, except as we noted, in the case of diplomatic, legal and medical exchanges.

The Analysis of Content and Process Variables of Feedback

Teachers are more conscious, generally, of the need to give feedback and to make explicit course objectives than they are to manage, analyse and monitor the consequences of feedback. While we are aware of these at one time or another, usually as the immediate needs require us to use them, we rarely are given an overview of these and shown how they interrelate. This is the purpose to presenting Table 1: "The Content and Process of Feedback" with the ensuing discussion.

TABLE 1: THE CONTENT AND PROCESS VARIABLES OF FEEDBACK

FEEDBACK	
Content Variables:	
Source/Object:	Others vs Self
Direction:	Giving vs Receiving
Extensity:	General vs Specific
Intensity:	Qualitative vs Quantitative
Process Variables:	
Timing:	What vs When, Where & How
Propensity:	Declarative vs Procedural
Formative purpose:	Positive vs Negative
Context:	Solicited vs Unsolicited

The Source/Object of Feedback

Source and object of feedback refer to communications about self or others. There are two distinct possibilities of concern to us: talking about yourself or talking about others.

There are two distinct types of talk which some use when talking about themselves to others. The egotistical type, at one extreme, relies on giving or receiving positive feedback to bolster self-worth. Persons who have a tendency to do this alienate others by giving feedback about themselves in such a way that it belittles others, or it emphasizes the differences which separate them from others. When such persons seek feedback it is only to support what they have already decided or to bolster, again their ego. "I'll tell you how to make it in business," "I know what they should be doing, but they won't listen," and "Why, when I was just starting out, nobody would have put in the kind

of work I did," probably sound familiar. By accentuating their supposed superiority they are making it clear by content that others can learn from them and that they have very little to learn from others. This is a form of the "Aren't you lucky to have me helping you !" The affective process is also clear, they aren't interested in helping others, even if that's what does happen, as much as they are in making it clear to others that they are superior persons who can help! People who have a sense of their own value, and flount it, usually wind up on the outside looking in.

In the classroom this means that the teacher feels students are alienated. 'Knowledge' is being used as some sort of sword to cut down students. Statements such as: "Sounds to me like you didn't read the assigned material" is a prime example. The teacher who would like to be effective must remember to ignore responding to the inappropriate part of the communication. If the teacher suspects that the student hasn't done the reading then politely, in a warm and nonjudgmental voice, say: "I'll bet if you re-read the assigned material you will be able to see for yourself, and at a better pace than what time I now have in class, the answer I briefly presented to you."

The person who makes statements about himself to others, in the second type, rarely has to rely on verbal communication. Rather, the nonverbal and metacommunicative messages operate to make the statement for him. Being polite [attitudes of equality rather than superiority], showing respect [believing the other until messages are shown to be otherwise], being attentive [active listening instead of thinking about or being eager to reply], and watching how and when you answer and not only what and to whom you answer usually makes a far louder statement about you. These elements are thought to be under involuntary control and thus to be a more accurate and 'honest' reflection of who you 'really' are. This is a downright manipulative suggestion but we do feel it is acceptable in the classroom. Whenever there are more people who are likely to perceive you [one-way communication] than you can also perceive [two-way communication] you have to assume greater control over how you create first impressions. Your style of dress, your punctuality, your way of returning assignments etc. all make a statement about how you feel about the student, feedback and your perception of the student's environment.

Talking about others is only recommended if what is said is positive, or at the very least, phrased as a constructive criticism. What is said about others eventually reflects on the person making or repeating the message. Within the student-teacher relationship this means that the source and object are for teachers and students to be able to share [empathize] how each is feeling [self-disclosure]. It involves referring to specific academic actions [concreteness], pointing out differences [confrontation], while maintaining belief in solving this problem [respect]. This process communicates honest

and real feelings [genuineness and warmth].

The Direction, Extensity and Intensity of Feedback

One should intentionally chose a time and a place suitable for the exchange so as to impress upon the other the seriousness of the feedback. Set the stage by identifying the intent to give or request feedback. Identify the nature of the problem and your role in it. Get preliminary approval to go on. Giving or asking for feedback when running into someone, in the privacy of an elevator, or while fraternizing over a social drink after work etc. gives the content of the exchange a "gossip" flavor. Equally important, the affective process says: "this wasn't important enough for *me* to intentionally see *you* but now that you're there...". In step 2 one needs to identify if one is intending to give or to solicit feedback. As part of step 3 state your perception of the problem and specify how it relates to the other *and* as well as to yourself. The last step suggests that you respect the individual's right to the decision to give or receive feedback and his or her "feeling" to chose when and to think about how to give or receive it.

The individual who relies on negative self-talk places too much emphasis on affective process and distracts from the impact of his cognitive content. A statement such as: "You wouldn't want me to help you with that, would you?" draws more attention to the affective process than is necessary. It's fine to be careful about the affective processes of others but equally important to respect yours also. People who are "down on themselves" draw sympathy only from others similar to them. "Thanks for asking me to help but I'm having such a bad time as it is that I'm sure I couldn't help you," is far more likely to respect the content and processes of both persons.

"I'm having a bad day. Isn't there anything I can do to change this?" is far more likely to solicit positive feedback than the typical "I can't do anything right. *Why* don't you help me!" The first connotes that you are aware, cognitive content, of your role in the process of change, affective process, while the second emphasizes the importance of external sources, in this case someone else, to help you to change. The second example is noticeably deficient in affective process.

In step two, extensity of feedback, the nature of the message determines the general or specific type of feedback that should be given. Since the qualitative or quantitative aspects are interrelated with the type, it appears necessary to write about intensity in the same context as extensity. If the intent is to give positive feedback then proceed. Pay particular attention to limiting yourself to one or two positive instances. Otherwise

one runs the risk of overkilling and thus neutralizing any effect at all. That is, the affective process, "He's trying to be nice" is likely to dominate the cognitive content with positive feedback. If the intent is to give negative feedback then state the problem in general terms and ask the other if he wishes to hear your comments. Be sure to limit your comments to behaviors that you observed and that the other can do something to change. "I've noticed you and so-and-so don't seem to get along so well." "I've noticed some things that could improve your relationship. Do you want to hear about my observations?" It would not be appropriate to talk about the third person in his absence. You may want to comment on what, where, how and when but never who, other than those present in the feedback exchange. In this fashion you are always willing to communicate about cognitive content and only about affective process when the parties are present. Otherwise the message one sends is: "Well if he says these things about others in their absence, what must he be saying about me in my absence?"

Intensity and extensity of feedback means taking the time, topic, person and subject into consideration. When one does succeed to interrelate all of these into his presentation it means that the topic will be of concern to all the persons implicated, discussed in the context of the 'here-and-now', and will avoid the generalization, jokes and oversimplications that usually identify the early stages of polite or social conversation. The first move in this direction, in our culture, is to refer to the person by their first name. A word of caution needs to be mentioned here. Some people are very much conscious of their psychological size or status, and one needs to accurately read from the nonverbal messages they emanate, how much formality the persons want. As teachers we rarely will be faced with this problem. If you call on students by their family names, nicknames etc. then you should expect and encourage the same towards you.

The Timing and Propensity of Feedback

Feedback does not occur in a vacuum. There are temporal and physical constraints. What we say to someone is likely to be tempered by where we are, or vice versa. Who we talk to is likely to influence what we say, just as how we say it depends on where we are, who we are with, and what we intend to say.

Variations on the use of "I love you" is a prime example. The first example: "You never tell me you love me anymore!" One can't force feedback. Instead one jeopardizes feedback by juxtaposing cognitive content with affective process. If the person does say "I love you!" one will not really know now, and only with uncertainty in the future, if the "I love you"

[content] is reflective of the affective state [process] of the person saying it. The converse is also true as illustrated in the second half of this example: If one were to say "I love you" but really mean something else, such as "I really appreciate the fine dinner you prepared", the future use of "I love you" will be cognitively processed to determine possible other meanings and in that time one's affective reaction to the message is undermined. It's like having someone say "I love you," and one takes the time to think about what this means. The more time it takes for one to process affect, the more likely it is that the other will think your affect is less intense. These examples apply primarily to affective processes. Of primary concern to us, in education, are the cognitive processes.

What does being late say about you and your attitude towards the other? What does coming by the teacher's office unprepared say about one's attitudes towards change? How does one consciously transmit one's attitude about cooperation? -discipline? - responsibility? etc. As one may see, the list can grow very rapidly. The student probably shows little, if any, awareness, that what he says is very much related to where, when and how he says it. The materials listed in the taxonomy, which is meant to be photocopied by teachers to be used with students, will hopefully help the student develop this awareness.

The following is a real life, and unfortunately all too common, case. A teacher is standing at the urinals when in walks a student who interrupts him. In the follow-up I mentioned to this teacher that I couldn't help overhearing their conversation. When asked about the appropriateness of the student's behavior the teacher explained that students have so little skill to contact teachers, that he didn't want to discourage one who "... at least was one to contact me!"

"Does this not imply," I asked, "that other students don't contact you? What does that say about their skills?"

"I would be surprised to have a student come to see me, for that purpose and during 'regular' office hours", he replied.

"You were so tolerant with him!"

"Yes, I wanted to encourage any behavior of the kind that increases student-teacher rapport".

"Would you have liked to tell him that this wasn't the time nor the place?"

"Yes, but I didn't know how and I felt I would be turning him off [discouraging him from making contact at all]".

"This implies that you perceive him to have a fragile interpersonal relationship and communication pattern with

teachers. Would you think that students and teachers should have some way of discussing with each other not only the declarative or factual things but also how, when and where to ask for and give feedback?"

"Definitely! Have you got something like that for me?"

"Well, I'll tell ya what I think of you! You did this..... You didn't do that..... You're nothing..... If you'd only..... If once in a while....." These probably sound familiar to many of us. Unfortunately this is often the closest we come to receiving honest negative feedback. The problem is twofold. There is usually too much feedback and we usually are perceived to have provoked, not solicited negative feedback. Whether we did indeed provoke the feedback by poor timing, by not knowing "when" to ask /or how to ask, or that it is the other who perceives being provoked and responds by not appropriately timing feedback /or knowing how to give it, it remains that the problem is with 'when and how' the feedback is transmitted. That is, it doesn't matter who's "at fault", the result is the same: Irate feelings on both sides.

The Context and Formative Purpose of Feedback

Such statements as: "Do you think this is a good time to talk to so-and-so about.....?", and "What's the best time to ask ...?" reflect a cognitive concern for timing. In the process of doing so the speaker is implying, like it or not, that the person in question is not always in a "good mood". This may have absolutely nothing to do with the other's "mood" however. The speaker's question is a reflection of the perception he has, in this case of another's mood, and it taints heavily the type of feedback he will be getting.

Persons who would want to give positive feedback to others about themselves would do well to learn to use humor: "You're having so much fun fiddling around with that. Do you want me to leave it all to you?", while wearing a pleasant smile, is much more likely to create a proper affective process. Again, in a more serious vein: "Do you think you will learn more by finding it out by yourself or by having someone help you?" The intent to help is clear and the decision is left to the person. One establishes a positive affective process and a non-superior attitude towards the individual and his decision about the task and his right to accept or refuse help.

If the intent is to seek positive feedback about self then be specific about what it is you want and how the other person's feedback helps you. The difference between compliment seeking and asking for positive feedback hinges on how and when one

proposes to integrate feedback into one's behavior. "I'm thinking I have to do something to improve my speeches. Maybe if you tell me what you notice about them, I'll be able to make some changes." In this way we are able to compare, by a process of elimination, what we need to consider changing.

Many people will hesitate to provide us with negative feedback and almost all "new" contacts won't do it. The content and process of feedback here needs to compare what you consider to be your positive assets with what others consider these to be. If one indeed does integrate feedback to change positively then the other feels that closer to you. They know you are serious and not just compliment seeking. Also as one gradually introduces what one considers to be problem areas, it is likely that the other will also follow. Before seeking negative feedback start with getting positive feedback. Thank the other(s) for listening or for sharing his (their) views. If you take up someone's time on your behalf then it is appropriate for you to tell him how you benefit from his comments.

Students behave in ways to automatically protect themselves from too much feedback, and especially negative feedback. Students prefer to meet teachers outside of offices, and the like, since it gives them a chance to capture the teacher's attention and for only a brief period of time. Thus the teacher can only deal with the central issue addressed to him. The student is protected from additional feeback [usually negative] about himself, his habits etc. The student is using a relational achievement strategy that forces the teacher to deal with the student. The teacher usually feels some sort of irritation at such times because he knows that his self-presentation, in relation to making first impressions with students passing by, is being manipulated into a relational achievement motive.

Real-Life Applications

Those interested in seeing just how well these suggestions may actually be implemented are encouraged to read probably one of the best sources of the systematic approach of feedback for the personal and professional development of student nurses (Aubin, Ouimet and St-Amour, 1986). On a more general level, and aimed for teachers, is the immensely practical and useful Human Relations Development - A Manual for Educators by Gazda et al. (1984). The problem with both of these is that they are aimed at teachers. While it may be that the Aubin et al. text could be distributed to nursing students, the length and complexity of the text require it to be used in a course designed for that purpose.

The work by Argyle, Trowers and Bryant (1978) is explicit on how to structure interpersonal exchanges so as to favor the acquisition of educational-life skills. Their concern is with the identification of these steps and arranging them into a hierarchy to favor the social re-insertion of persons who have problems with mental health. All three are excellent works in their own right, however none is readily and directly accessible to students.

Chapter 3

Educational-Life Skill Feedback, Persistence and Achievement

Introduction

This chapter begins by identifying student-teacher feedback variables and argues that knowledge about their use helps us to understand student behaviors that border on 'learned helplessness'. We argue that the net effect, of teachers providing such students with educational-life skill feedback, is to increase persistence and academic achievement.

We identify the population of students most susceptible to benefit from this intervention as those who operate in the 50% range. Since, once again, the teacher is expected to be the agent of change we state the expectations for their role in providing this feedback.

Student-Teacher Feedback Variables

There are a variety of feedback related variables that operate to influence and define the effectiveness of feedback. A discussion of the impact of such variables on attempts to structure the student's social/learning environment seems essential. These classes of variables include: The effects of feedback, immediate consequences of feedback, motives for feedback, and selecting feedback channels.

The Effects of Feedback

The classification and functions of feedback are very similar. The effects of feedback reflect on the other, ourself, or both. The intent of one to help another presupposes a formative feedback loop. That is, the persons giving and receiving the feedback each monitor their behavior, that of the other, and the

influences each has on the other. This is the ideal case. However, we live in a less than perfect world and the reality is that we often have some moderator variables affecting the formative feedback loop.

There may be some persons giving feedback to another but neglecting to monitor how the other is processing this feedback. That is, one may be giving feedback but the other is not receiving it, or one may be receiving feedback that the other did not intend to send. In either case we may speak of 'noise' in the formative feedback loop. When teachers complain that they are speaking but students are only passively listening, they are pointing to the fact that students hear without listening. That is, there is an internal and an external source of noise.

The arrangement of furniture, lighting, sound and the control of temperature are examples of physical attempts to control external sources of noise. This is effective to the degree that we know that the sound waves are effectively reaching the outer ear of the students. Teacher complaints, usually, are to the effect that the sound waves rarely reach the pathways to the temporal lobe where 'listening', or deciphering, occurs. Apparently the student learns to monitor only key words and phrases in an attempt to get the gist of what the teacher is saying. This is a reasonably effective strategy for students since it is possible to extract the main idea of a discourse without having heard all of the message (Bransford and Franks, 1971).

The problem is in terms of who is monitoring the internal process of whom. As we have said we engage in self-monitoring of our feedback while trying to monitor the impact our feedback is having on the other. This dual nature of internal feedback requires information sharing processes. We cannot do two things at the same time. As teachers we are very conscious of the necessity to prepare and to deliver an adequate lecture. Suppose we make an unintentional error. We know just how difficult it is for students to 'forget' this mistake. All we need to do is to ask them to forget it and it seems like everyone will always remember it. Why? The students have been cognitively monitoring the process but have been affectively stimulated by this pedagogical 'faux pas'. The teacher is human! Our pedagogical presentations must balance between monitoring ourselves and students. This is commonly referred to in the literature of psychology as 'self-presentation'. In teaching, it means we spend more time monitoring how we feel about what we say then we do with how students feel about what we say.

If we monitor only our self-presentation then we are acting very selfishly. The objective presentation of information requires that we know our material and how to deliver it. The student's strategy for self-presentation is not to be too involved because this is making a statement about himself to his peers and to the teacher. The strivings for autonomy and

independence in late adolescence are not from society but from the parents - especially parental control. And teachers, from the early beginnings in elementary school, are associated by students with parental control. The teacher's concern with his self-presentation, unless it takes in the student's concern for his own self-presentation, is squarely assuming all of the control. The teacher's request to have student's 'forget' the mistake is a direct appeal to the student's self-presentation as a reflection of the teacher's self-presentation. That is, the student perceives that perhaps the teacher is worried about the fact that students may repeat to others his error in presentation. At this point the students feel the surge of control going throught their veins and you can bet that before the end of the day just about everyone will have heard one version or another of the rumor about the teacher's error.

Monitoring the internal process of teaching requires sharing information processing time on two levels. We must monitor the content of the message [encoding communication] and how we said it [delivery] while stopping to see how the students are receiving the message [decoding communication] and how they feel about the message [metacommunication]. Of course some teachers may appeal too much to the affective aspect to the detriment of the course. For example, one former student once complained to me that the group and the teacher had spent six classes discussing how they would be evaluated. We need not stop to ask students about how they feel about the thoughts we are asking them to learn, that would open the door to empty discussions. We can, however, notice that students are bored, tired, restless etc. Why not ask them what it is about the delivery or the topic that is bothering them? The only real and necessary requirement is that asking implies non-defensive listening and a willingness to talk about change.

Humour is an especially effective vehicle for such change. For example, in response to students looking out of the classroom window: "I'm really a 'great' teacher you know! You can know the quality of a teacher by the kinds of things against which he has to compete and win. I have to compete with the grass growing and the trees swaying in the wind!" The idea is to draw some reasonable attention to your self-presentation as a function of how the student makes his self-presentation. It becomes clear to the student that he can have some control over the classroom environment. It isn't long that teachers will receive the comments about how to build a better two-way self-presentation feedback system. Knowing that what they say will be heard and given consideration is the control that students most probably need. After all, isn't this the most fundamental of interpersonal communication principles?

Immediate Consequences of Feedback

The idea of immediate consequences of feedback is simple: Arrange the long-term goal sought in a hierchical series of sub-goals. Make attending each, the ideal case, a sub-goal towards the long range goal passing. Taking down notes is rarely followed with active feedback and even more rarely with reinforcement. Consequently taking down lecture notes usually means consulting the text to meticulously underline and recopy the material. Raising a hand to ask questions about lecture notes usually leads to some sort of punishment: "Weren't you listening!", "I said that earlier!" etc. You can bet that the student has learned not to raise his hand.

The immediate consequences of feedback mean that the student must be made aware of the reinforcement value for behaving as he does. Telling the student that each has been randomly assigned to review, for no more than five minutes, what was covered in the preceding class is likely to stimulate some antagonism. This can be overcome by explaining to students that the purpose is to encourage them to take good notes and to give each the opportunity to see what it means to teach. If the teacher does this in a non-threatening way, the student initial responses will be approximations to the desired behavior. An equally effective technique which doesn't arouse as much anticipatory anxiety is to ask students to summarize, at the close of class, what has been covered. Such strategies are abundantly available in many textbooks and pedagogical resources, especially those that advertise behavioral approaches to pedagogy and learning.

Motives for Feedback

The primary motive for feedback is to enhance the student's performance. The most influential technique is manipulation. The opportunity to manipulate what one is learning and to demonstrate to oneself and others that one is learning are powerful statements about mastery competence. We can encourage manipulative behaviors by stimulating discovery, curiosity and exploration. For example, instead of talking about 'personaltiy development' one may address students with the question 'How did you get to be the person that you now know?' Of course the reply, often jokingly made, is that: "I got to be me by my parents!", which is used to launch a discussion on genetic influences to determine personality.

Stimulating and manipulating means devising strategies for getting students to examine their own thoughts and feelings about the topic to be addressed. Recommended readings, when they are brief and related to the topic, often find a very willing readership. The central aim of this strategy is to arrive at reducing the student's uncertainty and tension by having him participate. As the student progresses, or moves on to something, he develops intrinsic rewards - a sense of mastery over the environment and an evolving perception of his causality in that environment (DeCharms,1968).

The use of knowledge of results is perhaps the strongest intrinsic reward when the feedback is almost immediate. For practical limitations this would mean returning assignments and quizzes to students at the next class. Multiple-choice type quizzes have this distinct advantage over other types of tests. More about this is developed in the next section. The teacher should plan also on using social rewards to help the student differentiate and remain within the criteria of the course. The motive for feedback, in a summary statement, is to help students engage in self-exploration and self-understanding in order to arrive at more appropriate academic actions.

Selecting 'Feedbacks Channel'

Traditionally tests and test results have been the channels of feedback for students. The type, frequency, length, and power of the measurement and evaluation instruments can help students to achieve a sense of mastery over their environment or create feelings of worthlessness and helplessness. The ideal test discriminates amongst those who have prepared, the questions inter-relate and contribute to the overall stability, validity and reliability of the test, and the student knows what to expect. Building such instruments is time-consuming. However, student persistence and achievement, the ease of correcting and the teacher's own sense of mastery are strong compensation.

Most of the publishers of educational texts have a test item booklet. Some of these have item-analysis, validity and reliability reports as well as norms included. The current trend is to provide a media disk for the student and another comprehensive set of tests for the teacher, to be used on stand-alone micro-computers. This system, where micro-computer hardware is available of course, permits the student to obtain regular, convenient feedback about his performance. This system makes it possible for the student and teacher to approximate a programmed or individualized learning schedule. The use of multiple choice test items, when they require interpretations and applications and not only factual [definitions] use of concepts, usually are powerful enough to discriminate amongst all levels of

student ability.

For our purposes, the selection of a channel of feedback means appealing to the student in writing, verbally, or nonverbally. Providing the student with detailed written feedback on his performance on a test is no guarantee that he has read it or used it. The phrase 'feedbacks channel', besides being an anomality of English style, forces us to think that the plural of 'feedback' is not based on the number or type of channels but rather on the frequency of providing feedback. At this point the student can be asked to peridically report to the teacher to discuss how he has incorporated the changes suggested, or be asked to make a written reply showing the corrections made to the text. The idea is to be gradual and persistent to help the student discover that his actions can and do make a difference - if he will perceive, listen and communicate the 'feedbacks' he receives. If we think back on how poorly we performed after only limited feedback we probably quickly realize that we also needed 'feedbacks'.

Fostering Positive Attitudes for Feedback

Learned Helplessness and Feedback

Do we, as humans see the world as things, patterns or relationships? The "concrete" type of student can only see the world as a series of "things"; others, like "functionalists" see it as patterns, and there are a remaining few who see the world in terms of abstract "relationships". The cognitive and affective processes which underlie the perceptual processes direct behavior and explain the nature of individual differences. What could help us to understand why students perceive as they do? Why is it that some students "remember" more or less accurately that which they perceived? The answer to both is that students interact with, and not only within, the environment. So the student's perception of things, patterns, and relationships changes not only as the stimuli before him changes [slow as in cultural changes or rapid as in watching television] but also, and perhaps more importantly, as he sees himself in that which he is perceiving. The view of himself, especially in the context in which the experience occurs, contributes to facilitate the process of information processing, acquisition, and remembering.

A good example of this is the 'flashbulb memory' concept. Many of us can vividly recall what we were doing, where we were etc. on the day the NASA Space shuttle blew up killing all seven crew

members. The emotional impact that accompanied the information being processed was a sufficiently strong reinforcement for us to recall characteristics of the environment and context in which we found ourselves at that time of the accident. This 'Reinforcement-Affect' model suggests that emotional interpretations do become attached to reinforcements and can have influences on perception and 'learning'. Categorization and recall of an incidental event is influenced by its link to the emotional or affective meaning associated with that event. For example, hearing once again a song from the early 1960's may have more reinforcement value, beyond any artistic merit, because one may have associated it with his adolescent period of development.

The student, as a dynamic person, is continually interacting not only with his environment but with his perception of himself in that environment. The global frontiers of any student's field of perception are thus determined by how much the student can and does perceive himself in relation to his environment. A student who has spent all of his life in the plains of the Canadian Prairies will not have concepts about the environment as the student who may have spent his whole life in metropolitan Toronto. How then, would one expect the cognitions and affect of these students to differ if one were to offer each to study in the other's environment? Each student's perception of the physical and social environment will occasion difficulties in seeing himself as part of the new environment. The greatest difficulties are initially cognitive and affective. With kind and considerate social support and a non-hostile physical environment, e.g. these same students having to learn and live in the desert or the Baie James area, both the rural- and urban-type student could learn to cope so as to live and learn in the new environment. However, if their learning has been positively and affectively associated with their hometown and/or their learning is negatively and affectively associated in their new environment they will suffer the emotional pangs of 'home-sickness'.

What happens when the environment students are placed in changes more quickly then their perception of themselves in it can accommodate? Would not the student then feel some sort of distress? Would it not be reasonable to expect that some of this distress generalizes to the student's social and physical environment? Is not the syndrome of 'home-sickness' but one of the two conceptual anchor points? What then could be the other anchor of this bipolar dimension? It is not in students being exposed to stress but rather their sense of mastery over the situation, or at very least their belief in their eventual mastery, that leads them to continue. Learned helplessness appears as a strong candidate to be this other anchor point. If indeed this assumption is correct then the solution would appear to force students to change by imposing that they learn to monitor more effectively 'feedback'.

Feedback: Inclusion, Power and Affect

In our modern society the individual exposed to the rapidly changing images presented by the environment has to be selective. The more things change the more we learn to be selective, even if it concerns people and their perception of themselves in the environment. This explanation helps us to understand how we come to the attitude that an alcholic on skid row is an "acceptable" person to ignore! We, as part of the mass of urban dwellers, feel powerless to make a difference. We come to believe that our actions no longer can make a difference in the outcome. The process is analogous for students. The perception of a mountain of intervening and moderator variables leads them to minimize their influence. The indifference to opportunities, which so puzzles teachers, is symptomatic of learned helplessness.

The student is exposed to a variety of teachers, cognitive styles, intervention strategies, pedagogical approaches, and schedules. The threat of measurement and evaluation is all the more stressful since the environmental perception is in a perpetual state of flux. The student barely has the time to form a perception of himself in such an environment. In Cegep this means that students conveniently ignore feedback from teachers because they find themselves powerless to change or control the environment. Helping students foster positive attitudes towards learning is, by analogy, like trying to help the alcoholic on skid row.

The founding principle of Alcoholics Anonymous stresses helping the person to admit to the problem, providing feedback on how to recognize the warning signs, and suggesting alternative behaviors. This process is formative feedback. It teaches individuals to recognize the dangers and provides the means for circumventing them. In this context formative feedback has survival value. In education formative feedback is based on the acquisition of educational-life skills. Fostering a positive attitude towards change, the first educational-life skill, means letting the student assume the control and responsibility for his behavior. Only after this has been implemented is feedback to the student about himself likely to be a welcome source of information. Otherwise we constantly remind students that we are usurping the power and the authority that should rightfully be theirs.

We may increase student motivation to foster better attitudes towards learning by encouraging them to assume responsibility which will alter their perception of themselves in Cegep. This implies giving them feedback. We must at this point be careful

not to resort to a 'tell-and-sell' approach in which we try to convince students to pay more attention to feedback and then to use it. Students must want this feedback. The only way is for them to ask for it. When this occurs the student *feels* the power and incluson in his learning environment. That is, the student's affective involvement is the third and critical variable that should make the difference, *if there is to be one*, in his academic persistence and achievement. In brief, we are arguing that the student not only needs to have more control and a sense of inclusion in the process of learning but he needs to feel that teachers care about what he feels.

The Role of the Teacher in Providing Students Feedback About Educational Life-Skills

We don't expect it is realistic to be able to re-orient most of the student failures or abandons. We are relying on the observations that there are a group of students, usually in the 50% category, who could and would pass, but they need a helping hand that can make a difference between failing and passing. To initiate the student-teacher contact, the teacher has three strategies: 1) Wait for the student to contact him about his performance, 2) identify and ask to see those with low performance but who show *effort*, and 3) automatically consult with those who speak of abandoning. To begin the conversation, the teacher directs attention, in a non-critical and objective assessement, to the student's observable behaviors. The student is asked what consequences and outcomes he expects. The teacher informs the students that his help is available but that the student will have to ask for it and be willing to actively participate in all stages of the work involved. The idea is to make the student aware that the teacher does want to include him in the teaching-learning process and that the student does have the power to make a difference in outcomes. The contract is a psychological one: The teacher is saying that he will 'care' about the student's performance and helping him, providing the student is willing to care about himself and his own performance.

If the student says he does care and does want to make a difference, then the teacher may suggest that he can help the student to learn to act that way. The student is asked to check off, on a copy of the Taxonomy, the materials he believes apply to him. The teacher asks the student to meet with him to present, from most important to least important, the items which he feels are in most urgent need for discussion.

How Does Increased Knowledge About Educational-Life Skills Help Student Persistence and Achievement?

The answer to this question presupposes that there is an effect. It is preferable to develop the evidence on which rests this assumption. The general model in which this change is to take place is the student's self-concept. He must feel and then want to change his learning to learn strategy. Otherwise the material to be offered by teachers will be just that much more to learn. This suggestion is clear in the choice of wording: 'educational-life skills'. The suggestion thus far developed in these three chapters has been that the teacher, in giving student feedback about educational-life skills, is acting in a relationship enhancement program, which it has been argued favors the development of a positive self-concept (Baker, 1983). Churukian (1982) has attempted to provide experimental evidence for this effect.

> The general hypothesis of this study was that college students, according to their perception of the amount of learning achieved in a class, will judge the quality of the interpersonal relationships between them and their teachers differently.
>
> The implications of the findings are that teacher education programs should emphasize the ability to develop positive interpersonal relationships with students rather than methods and materials.

Unfortunately Churukian's (1982) research design does not allow, as he would like us to believe, that enhanced student-teacher relationships cause better learning. There is strong evidence for some interaction but the order and direction cannot be realistically interepreted from the data provided. Crohn (1983) in a review of available research on 'student-teacher behaviors as predictors of school success' concludes: "...implications of the data [effective schools literature] were found to include a clear and direct relationship between student achievement and self-concept -- the affective domain was found to be a critical component of school improvement efforts." Although this research is limited by the same criticism addressed to the Churukian article, it is significantly better since it suggests some sort of trend across several types of research with larger samples. Crohn's (1983) research has additional merit in that it reports how such student-teacher feedback was measured. A verification of the instruments used provides additional support, for what must remain the supposition, that student and teacher interactions do enhance academic learning. There is much indirect support to suggest

that student achievement and persistence may be enhanced by the affective domain, or 'warm' encouragement by teachers (Martin, 1979; Hummel-Rossi, 1981; Farley, 1982).

Roueche and Watkins (1980) made an important distinction in suggesting that the 'high-risk' student probably benefits most from such teacher feedback. This point, developed and argued in another report (Talbot, 1987), concludes that high-risk students operate on a relational achievement style which would support their greater response to teacher 'warmth'. Cross (1979) in a more balanced view has summarized the problem this way:

> But the research on the social orientation of field dependents raises a question. Is the student who says he prefers an explanation to an independent solution being dependent and mentally lazy, as most task-oriented educators assume; or is he instead actively seeking social interaction with the explainer in the learning process? [1979, page 125]
>
> The combination of well-defined structure within a warm interpersonal environment appears to be a very appropriate strategy for working with field dependent students. [1979; page 129]
>
> There are some subjects and some skills that all students need to learn, and we need to be knowledgeable in devising cognitive strategies to teach them. A mathematician may have to devise a more personally interactive approach in order to help a field dependent learn mathematics. Likewise, a group-oriented social scientist may have to devise some tasks that will help field independents gain emotional insight and social sensitivity into human behavior - not all of which is as logical as some field independents might hope. [1979; Conclusion #4, page 131]

Cross (1979) refers to the formative feedback as being part and parcel of the cognitive styles of the persons involved. The cognitive, affective and perceptual processes of the student and teacher influence how they interact. In her concluding remarks she develops these suggestions:

1. Cognitive styles of teachers and students differ and interact in the pedagocial process.

2. The greater the adjustment or "fit" the happier and more productive they are likely to be in each other's company.

3. Those who need structure, organization, and frequent feedback are more likely field dependent.

4. Cognitive styles may be devised and made to fit. The two dimensions are degree of course structure and student role in

determining or following it- the social aspect of pedagogy.

5. Knowledge about cognitive styles helps us to better prepare reinforcements which may motivate students.

Cross (1979; page 133) relates how a 3-man math department used cognitive mapping to better understand their own cognitive style and to help students assess theirs. With this knowledge they were able to offer differently structured classes to students. Enthusiasm and morale were reported to be high!

Affective education is an educational strategy based on the experiences generated by students themselves in their exchanges with teachers. The aim is to influence student educational-life skill competencies in the complex human interaction called 'the student-teacher relationship'. There is no attempt to be informational in any academic sense, nor therapeutic in a psychological sense either. The concern is to improve the person's sensitivity to his own role in giving or receiving feedback, to autodiagnose ineffective strategies and to eventually establish a better relationship with the teacher on whom he is dependent for a cognitive re-orientation. The difference is subtle: we purport not to teach about human behavior but rather to have students experience directly and for themselves with behavior.

Students can learn to learn by actively searching for lower level concepts, which they understand, and then building on these to work their way towards the previously difficult concepts. In essence, failure in learning is failure to understand concepts. Xuan and Mounivongs (1981) have used such an approach in helping their students to achieve. But, opening communication and feedback between teacher and student requires that students have an attitude, and levels of communication and feedback skills to profit by it. This won't just happen.

Lowman (1984) reports on what the ideal of such a teacher would be, based on a field survey of actual 'master' college teachers.

> A model of effective college teaching is proposed, based on published research and informal interviews of reputed master teachers at schools in the Southeast and New England. Outstanding teaching was found to result primarily from a college teacher's skills at creating intellectual excitement and positive rapport in students. Skill at creating intellectual excitement has two components: the clarity of one's communications and their positive emotional impact on students. Instructors must focus attention on key assumptions and critical insights of a subject and not be distracted by qualifications that most concern them as scholars. Outstanding teaching is characterized by emotions associated with intellectual activity: the excitement of considering ideas, understanding abstract concepts

> and seeing their relevance to one's life, and participating in the process of discovery. The second dimension of outstanding teaching, interpersonal rapport, ensures that students learn maximally from the lecture or discussion and are not distracted by negative emotions. Teachers need to avoid generating excessive anxiety and anger toward the teacher and to promote positive feelings in students. [Abstract]

And so, a formal experimental proof is lacking. We can only point to and argue around the issue. The classically conditioned affect that the student has acquired while instrumentally learning to relate action to result, has no direct experimental evidence. We can only argue for the existence of an interplay between cognitive, classical and instrumental learning. The instrumental component comes from the experiences one has had between appropriate learning behavior and positive reinforcement. If we consider the anxiety students manifest in approaching teachers, asking questions etc. then we can understand the classically conditioned emotional responses attached to learning the instrumentality just mentioned. In the words of Cross (1979):

> ...it is time for "respectable academics" to look at what is known about this difficult area. Some of their fears about the viability of the methods will not be removed by better information, but at least they will approach the subject from a position of knowledge rather than ignorance. [page 171]

Chapter 4

The Taxonomy of Educational-Life Skills

Introduction

The Taxonomy of Educational-Life Skills is a direct extension and application of Smith's (1982) "A Taxonomy of the Life Skills Required to Become a Balanced Self-Determined Person". We apply a taxonomy approach because it provides a clear and uncluttered way of synthetizing and organizing educational research. We propose to let the research guide but not dominate our thinking. This taxonomy houses the postulates of educational-life skills necessary for learning to learn. The content and process of these postulates are not 'hard and fast' rules but rather suggestions to teachers, about the feedback to give to students, to help the student cope with the process of learning. The aim is to identify, organize, and assimilate materials which students and teachers will want to use because they contribute to their learning and teaching motivation. The teacher helps the student to find his current level of functioning and encourages him to work towards achieving higher and more complete levels. Thus, only small changes in behavior, with which the student feels comfortable are required. In this fashion teachers help provide students with realistic, practical feedback about inclusion, control and affect to facilitate progression through a difficult cognitive development stage: Learning to learn.

As far as the literature can reveal there is no instrument specifically aimed at student affective needs, and tailored for teacher use, to help students acquire the interpersonal relations and communications skills that seem necessary for learning to learn. We realize that some persons will be against such an approach because we are advocating the inclusion of affective education precepts to accompany the cognitive development of our Cegep students. We have argued that affective education is necessary because it enhances student cognitive development. The postulates, deeply rooted in the daily realities that confront both students and teachers, point to the needs of students for better self-esteem. It is felt that a student's academic self-esteem will develop as a function of developing better interpersonal relations, communication, problem-solving and critical thinking skills with teachers. As this occurs the persistence and achievement of students ought to be a

by-product.

Suggestions for "changing the world" and complex routines that require constant monitoring and change over long periods of time are eliminated. We don't want to change anyone. We wish to present interpersonal relation and communication facts about life skills, and then show how these interrelate and operate as formative feedback to students. Thus we move into willful, planned change at a pace convenient to students and teachers. Students resent change because it is usually imposed on them. Teachers are made to feel inferior because it's as though what they are and what they 'do' just isn't "good enough". Most of the materials available on pedagogy suggest changes which may indeed be sound but require such an investment of time and effort that they repel instead of attract students and teachers to work together.

We propose as the definition of 'educational-life skills': The development in students of the awareness, understanding and use, with the teachers' help, of the interpersonal relations, communications, problem-solving and critical thinking skills which relate to learning to learn. This is a learning model based on strong interactions between the student's social-emotional and cognitive needs. 'Learning to learn' refers then to the contents and processes of interpersonal relations and communications that the student abstracts and applies in education. The objective is to maximize the benefit for the student, in a cost-benefit analysis, of attending Cegep. If the student fails to experience 'success' then he may leave Cegep, but this time with two new convictions. One, the Cegep has tried to meet its obligations to provide him with all reasonable opportunities for educational advancement, as the 'open door' policy implies. Two, the student can still benefit in his adult role, on the job, in the community and in his family relations with what he has learned about how he abstracts content and process about tasks and people. The integration of such facts produces a more accurate and coherent image of self and others.

Inclusion, Control and Affection

The educational-life skills, as defined above, cut across three major variables: Inclusion, control and affect. All of the postulates relate in one form or another to the needs for inclusion, control and affection. The awareness and understanding that the teacher hopes to create in the student, by providing him with feedback about the learning to learn postulates below, relates to helping the student discover the power and the feeling which comes from being actively involved in education. It is quite possible that the empathy created between teacher and student, in such efforts, are as important as the

student's 'success' to implement the feedback (Warner, 1980, 1983, 1984).

Inclusion means that the student can initiate interactions with others, just as others can elicit a sense of interaction from him. Communication is an irreversible, complex, circular process which reveals information to those participating. It is impossible to not communicate. Our social and physical environments make demands which require that we adapt and cope to change. That is, we must monitor the exchanges between ourselves and the environment we live in. This process requires a constant adjustment between receiving information, or 'feedback', and giving information, or 'communicating'. Choosing not to participate or not allowing someone else to participate is also a communication. To 'exclude' from communication is thus to deny the most fundamental of human abilities: to grow, to change, to become!

Inclusion is suggestive of actively managing one's life or the interpersonal relation and communication influences that one has on others [actions]. The awareness the student has of himself is likely to be the sum total of his perceptions of his self-images. That is, the student's self-image results from thinking about himself, thinking about what others think of him, and comparing these with the actual feedback others provide him. The semantics of this thought translate into a difference in awareness that one is included because things are done *with* and not *for* or *to* him.

Satisfactory *control* in interpersonal relations and communications refers to the dimension of power. At one extreme the student may either control all or none of the behavior of others; or the student may never or always be controlled by others. Being controlled, or letting others control us, suggests reactively managing one's life or the interpersonal relation and communication influences that others have on us [reactions].

The satisfactory level of *affect* in interpersonal relations and communications is the degree of intimacy and formality that the student initiates with others. It varies to the degree that the student is able to establish close and personal relations with others. The expression of affect can vary from baring one's soul to anyone and everyone that will listen, to never revealing anything about the private and personal self. That is, the affective management of one's life is the intrapersonal awareness and understanding of one's perceptions, motives, feelings and values.

The taxonomy wishes to remain as uncluttered as possible so as to facilitate its use. The intention is to be efficient and concise. The detailed ordering and sequencing of postulates is presented and is followed by an index which includes key words and additional descriptors. The taxonomy and index each begin on a different page so as to facilitate photocopying and

distribution.

The overall objective is to help students learn what it means to 'cooperate' in learning to learn. How to act pleasantly, to be concerened with doing their share of the work correctly and on time; to ask, offer and accept work; and to accept responsibility for their mistakes. This implies learning to relate to and to accept legitimate authority, to follow directions, to monitor and report on problems and progess, to accept supervision and constructive criticism, to work within the rules and regulations of the cegep, and to ask permission.

The Taxonomy of Educational-Life Skills

Interpersonal Relation and Communication Skills

1.0 Making the contact

1.1 First impressions

1.11 Characteristics of

1.11.1 Physical appearance: If you care about the task, goal or job and the relationship you will be careful of the statement that your dress and appearance makes about you. For example, applying in person for admission to Cegep requires that you show respect and cooperation which is made by your physical appearance. It may be argued, albeit erroneously, that if you aren't willing to show respect and cooperation by some casual conventional physical appearance then you may not be able to follow the rules and regulations that govern the Cegep. We may not like people who would think this way but the thing is that these people are the ones we have to favorably impress to gain admission!

1.11.2 Reputations: Repeating rumors and gossip is a good way to ruin your own reputation. Teachers are likely to hear about you before actually meeting with you. So remember that the image you establish with some teachers and students will be projected by them to others.

1.11.3 Speech: Some people try to ingratiate themselves by imitating the jargon, swear words etc. that appear in current use. People are likely to resent it since they will think you are mocking them.

1.11.4 Nonverbal behaviors: What you say to whom is most often tempered by when and where you say it. If you think you have a major problem and ask the teacher for an appointment you are making a more powerful case for your problem than if you just casually stop him in between classes.

1.12 Sources of mistaken impressions

1.12.1 False cues

[1] How do you reward yourself? How do others perceive you to reward yourself? Being able to postpone gratification requires a kind of self-discipline to weigh short-term versus long-term gains.

[2] Are you behaving in ways that support your short- and long-term objectives?

[3] Are there differences reported to you about

what others observe you to say and do?

1.12.2 Stereotypes: We all have the tendency to guess what the teacher and the course will be like based on what we have heard. However if we rely on such subjective information to continually weigh the information we ourselves gain in the form of experience in the classroom, then what we have heard is acting as a standard against which incoming information is being compared. This does not allow incoming information to alter your perceptions. What you have heard about the teacher and the course should be weighed with what you experience.

1.12.3 Halo effect - letting prior evaluations taint current or expected evaluations. Because you did well with one teacher in a course does not mean that you can make similar evaluations for the teacher in another course and vice versa. "I don't want that teacher. I flunked with him." is a typical negative halo effect. You should rather confront the teacher before registering to mutually develop what you expect from each other.

1.12.4 Leniency errors - the tendency of not giving people the negative feedback that their acts deserve. None of us likes giving negative feedback. We all realize though that it seems to be necessary.

1.12.5 False consensus: Sometimes we rely too much on what others think. Asking students what they think about teachers and courses must be weighed with objective information made available in course descriptions, outlines etc. Then discuss the differences you notice with these students. Finally ask teachers, before enrolling, what they think may explain any inconsistencies between what you heard and what you read.

1.12.6 Logical errors refer to the tendency we have to prefer certain central traits in persons and then to generalize these to other non-connected situations. For example, "He's such a cute person I think he'll be a good teacher!" or, then again: "He looks so mean! I don't want to have to take him as a teacher!"

1.13 Making a good first impression

1.13.1 Make an effort to interact with others. Learning from only reading may be possible for a very few persons. The majority of us have to interact with students, librarians, teachers etc. Why do you think that the major part of budgets for education go to salaries? We learn better from others rather than machines because of the possibility for human interaction.

1.13.2 Show an interest in others and their activities

hobbies, interests etc.

1.13.3 Try to find some commonalities.

1.13.4 Try to maintain a natural and relaxed posture.

1.14 Reaching out to make the first contact

1.14.1 Positive self-talk: Social skills are acquired through practice. If you keep finding reasons for not approaching someone you will find that others will be reluctant to offer to help you. "You wouldn't want to see me now, would you?" makes it easy for someone to say "No." "I've been meaning to meet with you but I've not been able to find the words at the right time to see you about..." is far more likely to initiate an interaction and to draw the other into responding.

1.14.2 Dealing with fear of rejection and maintaining the conversation. It is unrealistic to expect that everyone will like you all the time. Learn to recognize if someone doesn't agree or react well to what you are saying or doing. If someone reports being hurt, learn to say "I'm sorry to have hurt you." Let them decide to continue the conversation on a similar or different topic. Our emotional reactions usually result from the fact that we think our rights have been violated. You don't have to apologize for what you said. For example: "I don't mean to question your judgment sir, but I don't see what the example you are using has to do with the principle you presented." A defensive teacher will try to talk his way out of it or act insulted. The adequate response is simply for the teacher to admit that "I just got off on a tangent."

1.14.3 Interpersonal anxiety, dealing with

[1] Describe your experiences, hobbies etc.

[2] Explain what roles you would like to play

1.14.4 Plan on how to leave

1.14.5 Where to make the contact: Choose a time and a place. This shows how you wish to have both you and the subject treated.

1.14.6 How to open

[1] Start with a non-controversial open question that is likely to get a positive response.

[2] Present opinions about 'safe' personal topics and avoid talking about what you think are 'faults' with others.

[3] Use compliments briefly, sincerely and sparingly. Otherwise it appears as some form of ingratiation or condescending.

[4] Make comments about the surroundings

[5] Request information of the "I happened to notice" type. Avoid personal material.

1.15 Dealing with problem areas

1.15.1 How to correct erroneous first impressions others may have made of you.

[1] Point to the causes and not excuses for your behavior.
[2] Identify your error. Maybe even try to joke about it.
[3] Let people know that you can change by correcting your errors, and thus learn to avoid repeating them.
[4] Ask for another chance.

1.15.2 Dealing with 'Shyness'
[1] Try to find someone that you think is doing the behavior 'right'. Observe what he does and compare it to what you do.
[2] Use your imagination
[3] Try to perform the behavior at a time and place where you think you will be successful.
[4] Engage in positive self-talk [See 1.14]
[5] Use the 'SOFTEN' technique [See NV Behs]
[6] Use active listening

1.2 Self-Awareness

1.21 Self-disclosure Process

1.21.1 Safe topics first

1.21.2 Move to personal topics which appear to be held also by the other. If not, remain calm and politely follow leave-taking behaviors.

1.21.3 Make brief statement about you and who you are

1.21.4 Actively encourage ["Gee that sounds interesting" or "I never quite understood what that is."] others to talk about what they do or how they do it. Everybody loves giving their opinions.

1.21.5 By this time you will find that the topic has focused on you and the other - what you and the other share and understand about each other.

1.22 Characteristics and types of self-disclosure

1.22.1 Try to own up to your feelings and opinions. This means to be aware of using "I" instead of the ill-famous "they", "some people" etc.

1.22.2 Avoid words that criticize, belittle or boast about yourself and others.

1.22.3 Try to describe the behavior and not what you think was the intent of the behavior.

1.22.4 Describe what you think are the consequences of such behaviors.

1.22.5 No-risk taking type reveals factual information about himself. That is, only what others can see anyway.

1.22.6 The risk-taking type presents his views and perceptions, needs etc. so as to let others know who he is.
[1] In a positive person orientation this means the person shows solidarity, releases tension

agrees, gives suggestions, and is clear and softspoken.
[2] In a negative person orientation this means the person asks others for what to do. He

disagrees, shows tension by blaming others when the decisions they made for him don't turn out as he expected.

1.23 Rewards for self-disclosing

1.23.1 We gain a more accurate perception of ourselves and others.

1.23.2 Verbal communication is improved because understanding the message is helped by understanding the person who says it.

1.23.3 Meaningful relationships are based on self-disclosure.

2.0 Listening skills

2.1 Stages and characteristics of listening

2.11 Hearing, recording and coding

2.11.1 What was said versus how it was said reflects the intended message and how the person feels about the message.

[1] Identify the main points you think the speaker made

[2] Review what you think is the expected outcome of the conversation

2.12 Understanding and information processing

2.12.1 Phrasing questions shows your familiarity with the content of the conversation; your depth of understanding; the meaning you are giving to what is being said; and the words you use reflect your attitude about the reply you request.

[1] Indirect questions involve guesswork, they lead to inferred motives, inaccuray and 'games', as well as create defensiveness. The major types are:

-People infer that you ask a question so that you may hear what you want to hear
-Questions that are used to embarass others
-Questions that pry or probe
-Questions that make demands (tag questions)
-Asking a question instead of making a statement about our own motive, idea etc.
-Putting words in another's mouth
-Asking questions to which you already have the answer you want to hear

[2] Direct questions produce two-way communication, involve active listening, produce non-stressful, effective and clear feedback.

-Questions that ask the listener to reflect on relationships of parts or a part to the whole.
-Questions which help others to understand new relationships or facts.
-Questions which suggest that the process of some parts are not fully understood and should be before proceeding to more complex material

-Questions which require individuals to think about going from the general to the specific [inductive logic or convergent thinking] and to think about going from the specific to the general [deductive logic or divergent thinking].

2.12.2 Do you cognitively or affectively categorize? [i.e. Do you relate information in terms of what meaning it has to you or how you feel about it?]

2.13 Remembering, rehearsal, practice & overlearning

2.13.1 Summarize statements

[1] Ask closed questions [Questions that may be answered with 'yes' or 'no'.]

[2] Repeat the major points of the speaker's argument.

2.13.2 Paraphrase

[1] State in your own words and ask the other if you understand correctly.

[2] Ask the speaker to elaborate, provide some examples etc. by telling him what it is you are having difficulty understanding. Simply saying "I don't understand" doesn't help the speaker to pinpoint what it is you do not understand. You should be identifying what is that you don't understand to convince him that you were actively listening.

2.14 Evaluating

2.14.1 How persons and tasks are evaluated is affected by your motives, needs, beliefs and values.

2.14.2 Do you make up your mind and then find the facts to support it, or do you gather information and then use it to make up your mind? The difference is one of letting your cognitive development be in the service of your feelings or vice versa.

2.14.3 Check that what you heard is what he meant to say

2.15 Responding

2.15.1 Giving feedback

[1] Decide if you 'must' or 'can' intervene. If there is a reasonable chance that the other will want to change as a result of the information you present, and there is an already existing relationship then you 'can' choose to intervene. In a 'must' intervention the other's behavior is tangibly and concretely affecting the performance of someone. Be frank, direct and descriptive. Avoid questions and comments that put the other on the defensive. The idea is to get the other involved in finding a solution.

[2] Set the stage by planning where, when and how the feedback will be given.

[3] Keep to one or two major items.

[4] Describe behaviors do not evaluate them.

[5] Refer to some sort of frame of reference to compare the behavior.
[6] Try to set up this meeting as soon after as possible.
[7] Try to phrase feedback positively and constructively.
[8] Check on the perception the person has by asking them to paraphrase or summarize
[9] Asked closed questions [questions with yes /no answers] to make sure that all concerned know what is being agreed to.
[10] Ask the other to agree to change suggested.

2.2 Types of listening
2.22 Active vs passive. Active involves participating as opposed to merely recording facts and information.
2.22.1 Blocks to active listening
[1] Preoccupation
[2] Hostility, emotional blocks and inhibitions
[3] Charismatic belief in others
[4] Past experiences and old standards such as stereotypes, prejudices etc.
[5] Hidden agendas or plans and ideas to impose on others
2.23 Social listening
2.23.1 Informal: show courtesy and appreciation, small talk, and friendly conversation.
2.23.2 Interpersonal: Add affection, caring and warmth
2.23.3 Formal
[1] Critical listening involves distinguishing between fact and opinion; logical and emotional appeals. It includes an objective attitude to clarify ambiguities.
[2] Discriminative listening concerns itself with determining main points, the logical arguments, the assumptions and facts that support the argument. It includes also the follow directions and to recognize the purposes and the agenda [what change is expected to occur in the listener as a function of having heard the message.]
2.24 General non-verbal characteristics
2.24.1 Body contact [handshakes,kissing in some cultures] and appearance [clothing]
2.24.2 Facial
[1] Eye contact and movement
[2] Facial expressions
2.24.3 Body orientation
2.24.4 Body posture and personal space
[1] Formal or public [3 or more feet]
[2] Personal [1 1/2 to 2 feet]
[3] Intimate [less than 18"]
2.24.5 Gestures
2.24.6 Walking
2.3 Obstacles to effective listening

2.31 Prejudices, biases, stereotypes etc.
2.32 Thinking about what you are going to say before the speaker is finished.
2.33 Filtering out some parts of the message. That is selectively ignoring some things that are said.
2.34 Focusing too much on how the message is said or the adequacy of the words to convey the message.

2.4 Effective listening techniques
2.41 Empathy
2.42 Respect
2.43 Warmth - When coupled with understanding that comes from cooperation, this shows acceptance and support or "People we can count on".
2.44 Concreteness
2.45 Genuineness - The amount of sincere feeling expressed
2.45.1 Using cliches: "How are you?", "Aw poor you." "You must feel terrible." Such cliches don't encourage others to discuss their feelings and usually operate to close off discussions.
2.45.2 Taking into account an existing relationship or desiring to build a relationship with the another should be reflected by your degree of acceptance. Offering to help everybody and anybody doesn't help build closer relationships. The other must want your help and that's what you have to know.
2.45.3 'The silent treatment' means not to communicate. Although it is questionnable that the silence means you are unwilling or indifferent to the relationship, it does strongly suggest rejection.
2.46 Self-Disclosure

3.0 Speaking skills
3.1 Verbal communication
3.11 Self-awareness and self-disclosure skills
3.12 Listening skills
3.13 Conversational skills
3.13.1 In formal communication start by stating your conclusion and then present the arguments that support it. Ask the listener to paraphrase or summarize or provide an example.
3.13.2 When the conversation drifts off either ask yourself if the listener wants to leave or change to a more interesting topic, which is usually the case with informal or polite conversation. With formal conversation re-state the objectives or re-introduce the major idea. "That is interesting and perhaps when we finish this topic we could discuss it." Usually one has to wait until some appropriate break in the other's conversation to do this. Otherwise one runs the risk of resorting to psychological size.
3.13.3 General considerations
[1] What significant events have occurred in your personal life?
[2] How have significant events in your life led

you to your self-concept?
[3] What major decisions have you made as a result of significant events in your life?
[4] How have family, friends, the environment etc. influenced you?
[5] How do you behave in various jobs, with people?

3.2 Nonverbal communication
3.21 SOFTEN technique: Smile, Open position with Forward lean, Touch, Eye contact, Nod.
3.21.1 Relieves tension
3.21.2 Asserts one's participation & increases solidarity
3.21.3 Helps to meet people by reducing social distance
3.21.4 Increases feeling of inclusion [unity]
3.22 Leave-taking behaviors
3.22.1 Verbal expressions
[1] Simple reinforcement of what is being said, such as by nodding and not adding any new information.
[2] Using short words and phrases, incomplete thoughts.
[3] Switching back to an earlier and more general level in the discussion.
[4] Expressions of appreciation for having had this opportunity to meet or exchange with the person.
3.22.2 Nonverbal expressions
[1] Breaking eye contact frequently
[2] Positioning the feet away or orienting the body towards something or someone else.
[3] Nodding, and using filler words "uhm ... uhm"
[4] Leaning forward in the chair with passive nods
3.23 General characteristics of nonverbal communication
3.23.1 Use of time
[1] How much time does it take for you to recognize another or to respond to someone's communication?
[2] How much time do you spend with someone?
[3] How much time do you spend on a topic?
3.23.2 Use of the body
[1] Eye contact: Looking at, down or away when noticed; Steady, glaring and frequency of look
[2] Skin - blushing, perspiration, 'goose bumps'
[3] Posture - A slouched, crossed legs and arms, 'uptight', head down & facing away suggests moving away or against someone.
[4] Facial expressions - expresionless, corner of lips down, biting lip, wrinklrd forehead, smiling, wrinkled nose are used to convey the negative emotions for which we have trouble finding the words that accompany them [no interest,sadness or disbelief,

uncertainty, agreeing, dislike or disagreement].

[5] Tics - nail biting, scratching, cracking knuckles, pulling hair, rubbing or hugging oneself, foot tapping, drumming fingers, toying with clothing or objects, fidgeting all communicate some form of impatience to receive or send communication.

[6] Commands - snapping the fingers [impolite request for immediate action], winking [acceptance or overture], nods [agreement or support], waving the hand [greeting, asking and direction motion] fist [anger or power] or finger at someone [accusation], pointing the finger [affirming one's right to rebuke another's behavior], holding a finger to one's lips [silence], shrugging shoulders [hesitancy or doubt] and staring blatantly at someone [anger, power, accusation or disbelief].

[7] Touch means to get attention, to show some affection, to challenge, as a symbol of friendship, and taps on the head are signs of belittling or condescension.

3.23.3 Environmental forms of nonverbal communication

[1] Distances used to stand next to someone

[2] Arrrangement of furniture, lighting etc.

[3] Taste for luxury

[4] Position you sit in the room

3.24 Interpreting nonverbal communication

3.24.1 Remember that what you say is supported or questioned depending on how your nonverbal behavior appears to agree with what you say.

3.24.2 Remember that nonverbal behavior is interpretable in a variety of ways. Crossed legs and folded arms, for example do not necessarily mean resistance. It could be that the person is cold. Try to avoid the quickie 'interpretations' as one may find in those 'How to' kinds of books.

3.3 Symbolic communication and metacommunication

3.31 Psychological size: communicating one's power and status through the use of

3.31.1 Status and titles when they are not required

3.31.2 Hostile humor: criticism, sarcasm, ridicule

3.31.3 Telling people what's good for them or giving them a piece of your mind

3.31.4 Displaying too much detailed knowledge

3.31.5 Using jargon and other 'buzz' words to impress people with what you know or do

3.31.6 Not using people's names

3.31.7 Changing topics, telling others to speak up or down

3.31.8 In essence, try to take into account the age, sex, training, status, role and how much formality the other wants when communicating.

3.31.9 The use of clothing, grooming, jewelry, cosmetics, and your choice of automobile and residence provides others with opportunities, like it or not to make inferences about you.

3.33 Metacommunication

3.33.1 Changes in voice

[1] Be clear otherwise people will have to infer what you said and this creates problems. If you have something to say be clear. The major characteristics of clarity are: pronunciation, accents and diction.

[2] Use an appropriate level of volume and pitch. Being soft-spoken is fine but it is relative to the size of the room and the audience.

[3] Use an appropriate speed. We all like to hear an auctioneer as 'entertainment' but in everyday exchanges this is a source of frustration.

[4] Watch the intonations and inflections. Changes in these usually gives the messages many and quite different interpretations.

4.0 Interacting with others

4.1 Building open versus closed communication.

4.10 Knowing if the communication is open or closed:

4.10.1 If you and the teacher or student are better able to exchange, to work together the it is opening.

4.10.2 If, as a result of exchanges, the two of you come to trust and like each other more, it is opening.

4.10.3 If both you and the teacher or student are satisfied that constructive efforts are being made then the communication is open.

4.10.4 If others and you are able to work together to improve misunderstandings and to avoid conflicts then you have an open communication.

4.11 Based on five dimensions

4.11.1 What you think of the other and the situation

[1] When neither the other or the event is important then you can avoid or withdraw. An unpleasant person you happen to meet while strolling in the park means you just walk away.

[2] When the event or goal is important but your relationship with the other isn't, then you can use force, psychological size etc. You don't have to be nice with people who at a concert aren't considerate enough not to make noise.

[3] When what you have to do is not too important but the other is very important then you will need to settle the conflict.

[4] When both the other person and the goal are moderately important then you need to know the art of conciliating and compromising.

[5] And, amazingly enough, you confront the other

when both the goal and the other are very important to you.

4.11.2 Clarity of expression

[1] Think about what you mean to communicate
[2] Think about whom you want to communicate it to
[3] What are your attitudes towards the topic?
[4] What are likely to be the attitudes of the persons to whom you will be communicating?
[5] What skills do you have to communicate this idea?
[6] What listening skills are required of those to whom you will communicate this idea?
[7] What is a realistic expectation of the efficiency when you take the context and the situation into account?
[8] Use language and terms appropriate to the listener.
[9] What are the simplest possible terms that can express what you have to say?
[10] Go from the general to the specific in the development of your ideas.
[11] Find one major theme and relate everything, including an occasional example, to it.
[12] Be prepared to repeat or to restate your theme.
[13] Close by restating your conclusion.
[14] The more channels of communication you use the more likely the message will get through.
[15] Carefully monitor the nonverbal feedback of listeners. It tells you how well they understand what you are saying.
[16] Pace yourself to the ability of the other person to listen.

4.11.3 Coping with negative emotions

[1] Annoyances and irritations may lead you to suppress your feelings which ultimately will encourage you to become angry or to withdraw from the relationship.
[2] Hidden feelings leads persons to misinterpret what you say or what is heard. That is, hidden feelings produced distorted perceptions.
[3] Negative feelings that are suppressed leads you to see and hear only what you want to see and hear.
[4] Unresolved negative feelings often lead us to reject or refuse what is said because we don't like the person who said it.
[5] Unchecked negative emotions can produce power struggles in which others will have to hold in check their feelings so as not to hurt you.
[6] Negative emotions are often expressed nonverbally which usually contradicts the verbal message you send. Banging your fist on the desk while saying, in a polite tone, "I have

no problem!" will usually lead others to think that you have a problem and also a problem admitting to it.

4.11.4 Active listening

4.11.5 Self-disclosure when interacting with others means that what you say about the past must have some bearing to the present conversation. More importantly it means you are sharing how you feel about the person, the thoughts and the events being presented. It has nothing to do with revealing your past or intimate thoughts. Self-disclosure and active listening means that you build the current relationship by actively sharing what you think and feel about what the both of you are currently experiencing.

4.2 Building supportive versus defensive communication

4.21 Evaluation versus description: Correcting, suggesting, telling, moralizing and coercion are just some of the many of the well-intentioned acts we do to 'help' others. We fail to realize that helping others in this way makes them feel inferior and defensive. Simply try to get them to reflect on their behavior by describing what you see, then get them involved in finding their own solutions.

4.22 Control versus problem orientation: Analyzing someone's motives, attempts to get at the 'real, deep down' reasons for someone else behavior all smack of playing amateur psychologist. It's a good way to alienate people. Why not ask the person to reflect on the possible relations between actions, consequences and outcomes?

4.23 Strategy versus spontaneity: If you want people to do as you tell them then say so, but be sure to explain why they need to obey you. Spontaneity does not mean impulsivity. Telling people what you think, what are your opinions etc. is not necessary. When asked, or when it seems necessary to intervene, being honest and direct in expressing what you feel/think is being spontaneous.

4.24 Neutrality versus empathy: How are the feelings of others reflected and treated? How does one help others 'pick up the pieces' after they plop?

4.25 Superiority versus equality: We can all learn from others just as others have something to learn from us. We must be aware of the opportunities for learning more than the opportunities for teaching.

4.26 Certainty versus provisionalism: There isn't anything that is so sure that it's worth arguing over. When two people argue, both are wrong. The few minutes of arguing can lead to weeks of hard feelings and cold interpersonal relations.

4.3 Building a group participation style

4.31 Components of group development

4.31.1 Polite stage: Keep ideas simple, say acceptable things, avoid controversy and serious topics. Keep feedback to a minimum and avoid self-dis closure. The idea is simply to meet people and

to associate their names and faces with one or two general characteristics about them.

4.31.2 Assessing objectives and goals for meeting. Try to meet everyone. Avoid forming 'cliques' or hanging around any one person too long. The idea is to share what you think and to find out what others think are the purposes for the meetings.

4.31.3 Bid for power and leadership: Be brief & factual in your statements. Avoid compromising for the sake of 'being nice'. Realize that some good can come from conflict over ideas. It is never okay to attack the speaker or to make personal remarks about others.

4.31.4 Constructive stage: Remember that you can only be responsible for yourself. Let others be responsible for themselves. Expecting changes in others also means others expect changes to occur in your attitudes and behavior.

4.31.5 Team spirit:It is at this level that one feels as a member. The feeling of inclusion, control and power translates into the feeling that what you & others do and say is contributing to a sense of 'we'.

4.32 Components of group growth

4.32.1 Participation

[1] Who are the 'high" vs 'low' participants. Ask the low participants their point of view. Ask high participants to be more tolerant in their listening.

[2] Notice changes in style of participating

[3] How are the silent people treated?

[4] What are the patterns of communication?

[5] Who appears to be task or person oriented?

4.32.2 Influence

[1] Who speaks the most vs who gets the most attention when he speaks?

[2] Styles of influence: It's not so much what one says as how it is said that makes for it being perceived as positive or negative.

4.32.3 How are decisions made?

[1] One decides for all or no one. You don't have a group then.

[2] Everybody tries to support everybody else This is not a task group, it is too person oriented and is turning into a party.

[3] Are their members who make suggestions that rarely get accepted? Are their many attempts to 'solve' problems by voting? If so, the group has not defined its objectives and the means of attaining them.

4.32.4 Task orientations

[1] Asking for the 'best' way means getting all to participate and to share honestly what they think.

[2] Summarize and differentiate between group process vs content.
[3] Give feedback about the facts, ideas, etc. Avoid, at all costs criticizing the participation style of others.

4.32.5 Group maintenance functions
[1] Help others to participate
[2] Let others finish what they are saying
[3] Actively listen
[4] How are ideas rejected?

4.32.6 Group atmosphere
[1] The major process seems to be to provoke and to annoy others. Do others look forward to attending this group?
[2] How much effort is being made to suppress personal ideas in the interest of developing some sort of enjoyable and congenial group.
[3] How much sluggishness goes on? Clock-watching staring out the window, doing something else?

4.32.7 Membership
[1] How much inclusion does each member feel? Is their advice solicited? Are they made to feel that their participation is contributing to the attainment of the goal?
[2] How much time is spend trying to satisfy one's personal needs vs satisfying the needs of other group members?
[3] How often does a person get eye contact? How often is the person listened to [respect]?

4.32.8 Affect or feelings
[1] Are personal feelings ever discussed?
[2] Under what conditions will positive or negative personal feelings be allowed?
[3] How are participants reprimanded?

4.32.9 Establishing group norms
[1] Are there rules and regulations governing the conduct of members? Are these explicit or implicit?
[2] How are meetings conducted?
[3] How and when are interventions acceptable?

4.33 Components of individual guidelines for participating in groups

4.33.1 Stick to present: 'Here and now'

4.33.2 Use "I" statements that speak for you. Own up to what you have to say.

4.33.3 Look at the persons in the group when speaking. Try to establish eye contact with all members.

4.33.4 Avoid trying to be 'right' or always having the last word.

4.33.5 Pessimism, sarcasm, hostile humor are never appropriate

4.33.6 Avoid categorizing, especially the affective type such as 'right', 'wrong'. 'a lot', etc.

4.33.7 Avoid dime store psychology. Try to understand

and explain you behavior and leave it to others to do likewise for their behavior.

4.33.8 Advice is beneficial when it is solicited.

4.33.9 You are under no obligation to break periods of silence.

4.33.10 Remember that there is a fundamental difference between what you report as "I feel" versus "I think".

4.34 Group and individual growth

4.34.1 Self-awareness

4.34.2 Self-concept

[1] Physical self-concept: How is your oral, and physical hygiene?

[2] Social self-concept: The company we keep and the choice of persons we work or socialize with make statements about us.

[3] Ideal self-concept: What is the difference between what we are and what we would like to be?

[4] Self-as-process: What changes in ourselves to we monitor. To what do we attribute our failures and successes?

[5] Self-esteem: How much do we like what we see in ourselves? How much effort am I willing to invest to produce desired change?

4.34.3 Self-Disclosure

4.35 Group growth: Feedback

4.35.1 Giving feedback:

[1] Decide if giving feedback is solicited or not. If it isn't then decide if you must intervene.

[2] Choose a quiet place free from distractions.

[3] Choose a time appropriate to both of you.

[4] If the feedback is negative be sure to explain why you must do it.

[5] Relate the feedback to specific behaviors. Is it a question of goals, expectations, values?

[6] Explain by describing how the behaviors do not correspond to the goals, expectations etc.

[7] Suggest changes in behavior that need to be made

[8] Ask for feedback about what they have heard

[9] Correct the mistakes and ask the other to agree to changes.

[10] Mutually agree on what behaviors are to be changed, how to change them and when you expect such changes to occur.

[11] Summarize the major points and thank the other for listening.

4.35.2 Receiving feedback:

[1] Choose a mutually appropriate time and place

[2] Specifiy what it is you need feedback about

[3] Try to keep your request to one or two items

[4] Ask open questions

[5] Summarize or paraphrase what you heard.

[6] DO NOT ask questions about what you think you heard. Ask to take the time to think about what has been said and to come back to talk once more.

[7] Thank the person for listening and for giving you the feedback.

4.35.3 Positive or negative feedback

[1] Never lose a change to provide someone with brief positive feedback about meeting goals, expectations etc. Keep it simple and direct. No need to publicize it unless it is a rare achievement.

[2] Likewise for negative feedback, except that it is never appropriate to publicize.

[3] If you have something to say to someone then do so directly.

[4] If the feedback arouses the emotions then learn to identify it as such, to wait to think about what you feel. It is too easy to blurt out something that we will later regret.

[5] If you must provide a response when emotionally aroused identify your emotion and make it clear that you are responding to the ideas conveyed and not to the person telling you. Explain why you need to respond now instead of waiting to compose yourself.

[6] Keep your feedback consistent with your role relationship with that person. Offering help or advice suggests you know more about the problem and its solution than does the other person who does have the problem.

[7] Learn to wait to be asked for advice. Everybody likes to give their opinion.

4.35.4 Feedback for self or others?

[1] Never ask others what they think about someone else when that person isn't present. It puts people on the defensive and helps to start gossip and rumors. Remind others who may have done this to you as a form of constructive criticism.

[2] If you must have information about someone then explain the context and why you need it. Ask this of others if they don't seem to be aware when asking you for priviledge information.

[3] Focus on what the person did and not on the person. Make it a point to ask another, if you are involved to describe the behavior and not his evaluation of your person.

[4] Make statements about your feelings and you reactions rather than on giving advice. If others do this to you, then ask them to own up. "Sounds to me like you also believe this."

[5] Always respect confidentiality. One of the

best reminders is to talk about the 'here and now' rather than the 'then and there'.

[6] It is extremely rare to ask acquaintances for feedback. Try to choose someone that has seen your behavior in a variety of contexts.

[7] It is normal to forget. So, the process of feedback means that it is ongoing.

4.36 Group growth: Risk-taking and consensual validation

4.36.1 Risk-taking: Personal growth means being responsible for ourselves. Relying on others to help us produce change is therapy. By not taking risks we offer ourselves security and comfort. We risk nothing and we gain very little information about change and need for change. The risks involve dealing with our doubts, fears, limitations, personal and social inadequacies, and diminished self-esteem.

4.36.2 Consensual validation: If one person provides you with feedback you may dismiss it, but if several people provide or agree then you need to think about introducing change in yourself.

4.4 Communication styles and roles

4.41 Cognitive learning styles

4.41.1 Doing better than everybody else [competitive]

4.41.2 Working in small groups [collaborative]

4.41.3 Don't like tests or teachers [avoidance]

4.41.4 Takes and revises lecture notes, reads and completes assignments [participative]

4.41.5 Prefers to memorize or to have to learn what is clearly identified by the teacher [dependent]

4.41.6 Prefers to read ahead and to pace himself in completing work and assignments [independent]

4.42 Social roles

4.42.1 Expert

4.42.2 Facilitator

4.42.3 Formal authority

4.42.4 Socializer

4.42.5 Person

4.42.6 Ego ideal

4.43 Uses of power

4.43.1 Expert

4.43.2 Referent

4.43.3 Legitimate: elected or appointed

4.43.4 Reward

4.43.5 Coercive

4.43.6 Self-appointed

4.44 Orientations for getting things done

4.44.1 Task orientations

[1] Seek information

[2] Present information

[3] Clarify and elaborate on facts

[4] Initiate discussions

[5] Goal oriented [getting the job done is the most important goal]

4.44.2 Person orientations
[1] Harmonize the group activities
[2] Gatekeeping [makes sure everybody gets the chance to participate].
[3] Compromising [give and take attitude]
[4] Expresses concern for group feeling as more important than individual feeling
[5] Recognizes and praises individual efforts that support group [leadership]

4.45 Leadership styles
4.45.1 Democratic: participating and delegating
4.45.2 Autocratic: Tell and sell ideas
4.45.3 Laissez-faire:

4.5 Threats to relationships
4.51 Differences in goals or means of attaining goals
4.52 Methods of earning and distributing resources
4.53 Differences in expectations
4.53.1 Threats to self-esteem
4.53.2 Threat to security
4.53.3 Threat to role stability

4.6 Dealing with conflict
4.61 Use problem-solving strategy and not guilt finding
4.62 Re-examine assumptions, inferences and expectations
4.63 Try to imagine yourself in the other's role
4.64 Check your communication channels
4.64.1 Rumor
4.64.2 Gossip
4.64.3 Grapevine
4.65 Dealing with anger and other negative emotions. Anger is a defensive reaction in which we feel frustrated because we not only did not get what we wanted but we also feel our personal rights, beliefs, etc. have been attacked.
4.65.1 Yours
[1] Own up to being angry
[2] Try to identify the level of your anger
[3] Identify behaviors in yourself and others that arouse the anger
[4] Diagnose the threat. What is it about the anger arousing event that triggers this feeling?
[5] Share with others how you perceive the event to arouse your negative emotional response.
4.65.2 Others'
[1] Admit to yourself and to the other that there is a negative emotional state.
[2] Acknowledge that this state makes you defensive.
[3] Try to help the person identify the source of the anger.
[4] Try to describe how the situation or event could be re-structured to avoid producing the anger.

5.0 Problem-Solving

- 5.1 Identify problem
  - 5.11 Admit that there is a problem is usually the most important step to solving it.
  - 5.12 Check that what you think is the source of the problem is also what others also agree it is
  - 5.13 Give yourself a realistic time frame to deal with the problem.
  - 5.14 Make an attempt to solve it based on your best idea.
  - 5.15 If the first attempt doesn't work then try to think of alternative ways of viewing the problem and its solution.
  - 5.16 Don't forget that you haven't used up all the alternatives until you have asked significant others, like teachers, for suggestions.
- 5.2 Identify a solution to a problem
  - 5.21 What do you need to solve this problem?
  - 5.22 Ask yourself open questions
  - 5.23 Engage in critical thinking
    - 5.23.1 What needs to be done?
    - 5.23.2 At what points must decisions be made?
    - 5.23.3 What are the alternatives where these decisions must be made?
    - 5.23.4 On what criteria will rest my decisions?
    - 5.23.5 Are my choices based on values or decisions?
    - 5.23.6 What are the resources available?
    - 5.23.7 Where in the problem do I appear to need more information?
  - 5.24 Try to see the concrete aspects of the problem
    - 5.24.1 Identify, in writing what you will need, when, where, how, and why?
    - 5.24.2 What commitment are you making to getting this done?
    - 5.24.3 How do you plan to deal with those persons who will try to change your mind?
    - 5.24.4 Who needs to be told and when about you decision?
  - 5.25 Try to sort out how you feel about the problem
    - 5.25.1 What do you stand to gain or lose for solving or not solving the problem?
    - 5.25.2 Are you being pushed by a desire for success or by a fear of failure?
    - 5.25.3 How do feel about what you expect will be the reactions of others to your solution?
  - 5.26 Understand that this is your problem. Ask others to assist you in seeing things differently but not to just simply ask them to solve it for you.
- 5.3 Implement a solution to solve a problem
  - 5.31 What are the short term goals?
  - 5.32 What is the required sequence of tasks?
  - 5.33 What are the current resources you dispose of? and what resources do you expect to need?
  - 5.34 How will you know if the solution is being properly applied?
  - 5.35 What kind of time will you need?

5.4 Evaluate a plan
5.41 How are you going to collect information about the results?
5.42 Will you need other persons to help you collect or analyze the data [provide objective feedback]?

6.0 Critical Thinking
6.1 Check your assumptions
6.11 What exactly is being compared?
6.12 Are the same units of measurement applicable to the objects being compared?
6.13 Are the samples of units or behaviors adequate and representative?
6.14 Are the test comparisons being conducted at similar times and under similar conditions?
6.15 Are there other possible sources of explanation that could be used in explaining the results? Were there attempts to control or account for these other reasons?
6.16 How many times have the results occurred? That is, have you noticed the frequency and regularity of the event or behavior you wish to study?
6.17 Are there objective measurements on which you may make an assessment? That is, are there descriptive statistics that may allow some factual comparisons to be made?
6.2 Processing information
6.21 Do you make up your mind and then find facts to support your views?, Or, do you set criteria, find facts and then make up your mind?
6.21.1 Pay closer attention to detail. Look for movement, repetition, change and the use of color, size etc.
6.21.2 An emotional cognitive style means that you find yourself accepting or refusing information on the basis of who said it.
6.22 How well can you recall the literal who,what,where,when, how and why of information?
6.23 Are you able to defer judgment until you have hear all the information?
6.24 How well can you collect, tabulate or organize data?
6.25 How efficient are your criteria for discriminating between what eventually turns out to be relevant or irrelevant data?
6.26 Do what degree can you see patterns, relations and conventions emerge from the data you collect?
6.26.1 Do you operate on 'right-wrong' or 'good-bad' or 'yes-no' kinds of criteria [concrete functioning]?
6.26.2 Are you able to verify the adequacy of your categorizations [functional reasoning]?
6.26.3 Are you able to make rules, observations about data? Do you recognize assumptions and inferences [abstract reasoning]? Are you able to pick out false arguments? Do you know when arguments are appealing to reason or to emotions?
6.27 Can you formulate hypotheses? Formulate analogies?

6.27.1 Can you verify your hypothesis?
6.27.2 Can you weigh the effects of differing data on revising the hypothesis?
6.27.3 Do you differentiate between causes and effects with claims of relationships?

6.28 How well do you apply what you learn to what you do?
6.28.1 Can you determine side effects?
6.28.2 Can you infer what will happen?
6.28.3 Can you translate an abstract principle into a concrete behavior?
6.28.4 Can you analyse how past behaviors have contributed to the current state of affairs?
6.28.5 Can you make unique communication? Do you have to rely on long quotes or what others say?

6.29 How much of what you are right now can you say you planned for?
6.29.1 Are your decisions taken on the basis of self-interest? -social convenience? -reasoning?
6.29.2 How well do you accommodate or assmiliate?
6.29.3 How well can you modify your behavior to produce desired changes in yourself?
6.29.4 How much self-exploration do you engage in?
6.29.5 How good a match exists between what you say your long term goals are and your short term behaviors?
6.29.6 What have you done today that contributes to what you say you want to do in life?
6.29.7 What have you done today that relates to learning while in cegep?

INDEX FOR THE TAXONOMY

Active Listening, see Listening, Active
Admission to Cegep, P1.11.1; P1.12.1; P6.29
Appearance, see Physical Appearance
Asking For Help, P1.12.4; P2.15.1; P4.35; P4.36
Assignments, P2.12.1; P4.10.1; P4.10.4; P4.34.2; P4.41.2; P4.41.6; P5.0; P5.15; P6.0
Authority, relating to, See Power and Groups
Biases, see Stereotypes
Body Orientation, as a form of nonverbal communication, P2.24.1; P2.24.4; P3.22.2; P3.23.2
Breaking the Ice, see Introductions
Career, getting help choosing a, P1.13; P1.14; P1.2; P2.1; P2.3; P3.21; P3.3; P4.11; P4.35.2; P4.36.1; P4.6; P5.0; P6.0
Central Traits, first impressions of others and, P1.12.6
Change, demonstrating a willingness to, P1.15; P1.21; P2.12.1; P2.14; P2.22; P3.21; P3.31.8; P4.11.1; P4.33; P4.35; P4.6; P6.28; P6.29
Class Attendance, see Participation
Class, see Group
Commands, nonverbal forms of, P3.23.2
Communication, building, P4.2
Communication, interpersonal dimensions of, P4.11
Complaining, see Feedback
Compliments, introductions and, P1.14.6
Condescension, P1.11.3
Contacting People, see Introductions
Conversational Skills, P1.14.2; P2.11.1; P2.23; P2.12.1; P3.13 P4.11.5
Cooperation, for attending Cegep, P1.11.1
Course, Feedback for enrolling in a, P1.12.5
Critical Thinking, assumptions and, P6.1
Critical Thinking, information processing and, P2.12.1; P6.2
Educated Guesses, making, P6.27
Effort, making first impression and, P1.13.1
Emotional Reactions, introductions and P1.14.2
Empathy, P2.41; P2.43; P4.24
Enrolling in a Course, P1.12.5
Environmental Influences, see Nonverbal Behaviors
Evaluations, first impressions and, P1.12.3
Eye Contact, P2.24.2; P3.22.2; P3.23.2
False Consensus, P1.12.5
Fear of Rejection, P1.14.2
Feedback, P2.12.1
Feedback, giving & deciding to intervene, P2.15.1
Feedback, giving & group, P4.35.1
Feedback, negative & mistaken first impression, P1.12.4
Feedback, positive or negative, giving and P4.35.3
Feedback, receiving, P4.35.2; P4.36.2
Feedback, self or others?, P4.35.4
Feelings, effects on listening, P2.14.1

Feeling Like One of the Group, see Group Growth
Feelings, negative and coping with, P4.11.3; P4.32.8; P4.65.1
Feelings, owning up to, P1.22.1
Filler Words, see Preverbal Communication
First Impressions, P1.1
First Impressions, correcting erroneous, P1.15.1
First Impression, making a good, P1.13
First Impressions, sources of mistaken P1.12
Friends, making, see Introductions, see Group
Genuineness, P2.45
Gossip, P1.11.2; P4.35.4; P4.64.2
Group Atmosphere, P4.32.6
Group Development, P4.31
Group Growth, P4.32
Group Maintenance Functions, P4.32.5
Group Norms, P4.32.9; P4.33
Groups, participating in, P1.0; P2.0; P3.0; P4.0
Groups, taking risks, see Risk-Taking
Halo Effect, P1.12.3
Helping Others, P2.15.1; P4.35; P4.36, see also Opinions
Hobbies, making first impression and, P1.13.2
Impressions, see First Impressions
Influencing People, P4.32.2
Interests, making first impression and, P1.13.2
Interpersonal Anxiety, introductions and, P1.14.3
Introductions, P1.0; P4.33
Introductions, open versus closed, P4.1
Introductions, correcting erroneous first impressions and, P1.15.1
Introductions, dealing with fear of rejection and, P1.14.2
Introductions, emotional reactions and, P1.14.2
Introductions, how to open, P1.14.6
Introductions, interpersonal anxiety and, P1.14.3
Introductions, maintaining conversations in, P1.14.2
Introductions, positive self-talk and, P1.14.1
Introductions, reaching out to make, P1.14
Introductions, self-awareness and, P1.2
Introductions, where to make the contact, P1.14.5
Jargon, P1.11.3; P3.31.5
Late, being for class or an appointment, see Feedback
Leadership, P4.31.3; P4.44.2; P4.45;
Learning, application of, P6.28
Learning Styles, P4.41
Leave-Taking, P1.14.4; P3.22
Leniency Error, P1.12.4
Listening, active, introductions and, P1.15.2; P4.11.4
Listening, blocks to active, P2.22.1
Listening, body contact or posture and, P2.24.1; P2.24.4; P3.22.2
Listening, critical, P2.23.3
Listening, discriminative, P2.23.3
Listening, effective techniques for, P2.4
Listening, evaluation and, P2.14
Listening, eye contact and, P2.24.2; P3.22.2; P4.32.7; P4.33.3
Listening, facial expression and, P2.24.2; P3.23.2
Listening, formal, P2.23.3

Listening, hearing is not, P2.11
Listening, informal, P2.23.1
Listening, interpersonal, P2.23.2; P4.11.2
Listening, nonverbal characteristics of, P2.24
Listening, obstacles to effective, P2.3
Listening, social, P2.23
Listening, stages and characteristics of, P2.1
Listening, taking notes and, P2.23.3
Listening, types of, P2.22
Listening, understanding and processing, P2.12
Logical Error, P1.12.6
Meeting People, see Introductions
Motivation, listening and, P2.12.1; P2.14.1
Nonverbal Behaviors, communication skills, P3.2
Nonverbal Behaviors, environment, P3.23.3
Nonverbal Behaviors, general characteristics of, P3.23
Nonverbal Behaviors, interpreting, P3.24
Nonverbal Behaviors, making first impression, P1.11.4; P1.13.4
Nonverbal Behaviors, opening up skills, P3.21
Nonverbal Behaviors, symbolic, P3.3
Notetaking, see Listening, see Feedback
Open Questions, introductions and, P1.14.6
Opinions, P1.21; P1.22.1; P2.23.3; P4.23; P4.35.3;
Opinions, introductions and, P1.14.6
Paraphrasing, listening and, P2.11.1; P2.13.2
Participation, P3.21.2; P4.2; P4.3; P4.32.1; P4.32.7; P4.33; P4.41.4; P4.44.2; P4.45
Person Orientation, P1.13; P1.14.6; P1.22.6
Person Orientation, listening and, P2.11.1; P2.14.1; P2.15.1; P2.24.4;
Person Orientation, speaking and, P3.22.1; P3.24.2;
Person Orientation, interacting with others and, P4.11.1; P4.11.2; P4.11.3; P4.22; P4.31.2; P4.31.1; P4.32.3; P4.32.7; P4.33.3; P4.34.2; P4.35.3; P4.35.4; P4.44.2; P4.65.2
Person Orientation, problem-solving and, P5.24.3; P5.42
Physical Appearance, P1.11.1
Power, nonverbal communication of, P3.31; P4.31.3; P4.43
Prejudices, see Stereotypes
Preverbal Communication, P3.22.2
Problems, dealing with, P1.15, P5.0; P6.0
Psychological Size, P3.13.2; P3.31
Punishing Language, P1.22.2; P3.31; P4.33.5
Questions, closed, & feedback, P2.15.1
Questions, closed, & listening, P2.13.1
Questions, open, & introductions, P1.14.6
Questions, phrasing, P2.12.1
Questions, indirect and direct types, P2.12.1
Relationships, meaningful, P1.23
Remembering, listening and, P2.13
Reputations, P1.11.2
Resentment, P1.11.3
Respect, in attending Cegep, P1.11.1
Respect, listening and, P2.42; P4.32.7; P4.35.4
Risk-Taking, P1.22.5; P1.22.6; P3.13.2; P4.36.1
Roles, social in school, P4.41; P4.42

Rumors, P1.11.2
Self-Awareness, introductions and, P1.2; P4.34.1
Self-Concept, P4.34.2
Self-Disclosure, characteristics and types of, P1.22
Self-Disclosure, introductions, P1.14.6; P4.11.5; P4.34.3
Self-Disclosure, process of, P1.21
Self-Disclosure, rewards for, P1.23
Shyness, introductions and, P1.15.2
Speech, making first impression and, P1.11.3
Status, nonverbal communication of, P3.13
Stereotypes, P2.31
Stereotypes, relationship to first impressions and, P1.12.2
Success, P1.15.2; P4.34.2; P5.25.2
Swearing, P1.11.3
Talking, see Verbal Communication
Task Orientations, P1.11.1; P2.14.1; P4.32.1; P4.32.4; P4.44
Teacher Evaluation, P1.12.3; P1.12.5; P1.12.6; P1.13.1; P1.14.2; P4.10.3; P4.41.3; P4.41.5; P5.16
Team Spirit, P4.31.5
Telling Somebody Off, see Feedback
Tests, see Feedback, see Critical Thinking
Time, as a nonverbal form of communication, P3.23.1
Verbal Communication, conversational skills, P3.13
Verbal Communication, leave-taking behaviors, P3.22
Verbal Communication, open versus closed, P4.1
Verbal Communication, self-disclosure, P1.23; P3.11
Verbal Communication, voice changes and, P3.31.1
Warmth, see Empathy
What others think, P1.12.5

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